ARE KUWAITI PRIMARY EFL TEACHERS IMPLEMENTING A CLT-BASED LEARNER-CENTRED METHOD IN THEIR CLASSROOMS?

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences of Newcastle University in fulfilment of the requirements for the PhD degree in Applied Linguistics

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I would like to thank God, the most gracious, the most merciful; if it wasn't for Him, I would not have succeeded.

Abstract

The Communicative Approach in language teaching is based on a theory of language as communication. The objective of language teaching, according to this approach, is to develop what Hymes (1972) calls learners' communicative competence. The literature review on EFL primary, secondary, and post secondary teachers' practices in the classroom has shown teachers focusing on form and using traditional methods, e.g. GTM, ALM and TPR, and techniques, e.g. PPP. However, those studies did not examine teachers' practices, teachers' knowledge and the curriculum, including textbooks/materials, assessment and teacher training programmes, all at the same time and at one point in time. Thus, the purpose of this study is to take Kuwait as a case study of primary EFL to find out whether EFL primary teachers implement a CLT-based, learner-centred method in their classrooms, knowing that education is centralized in Kuwait, i.e. the curriculum, textbook/materials, assessment and teacher training are provided by one authority: the Ministry of Education. To achieve this objective, first a classroom observation was conducted on twenty three primary EFL Kuwaiti female teachers using the COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) Observation Scheme, with its four categories derived from the literature on CLT to find out whether the methodology used is communicative or not. Secondly, an examination of the curriculum document, textbook/materials, assessment and teacher training programmes was conducted to find out whether they work in harmony towards the fulfilment of curriculum goals, i.e. to develop learners' communicative and linguistic competence in using English fluently and accurately. Finally, an interview was conducted on the same twenty three teachers to find out about teachers' knowledge and beliefs of CLT, its practicality, and their perception of their own practice. Qualitative and quantitative analysis of the data indicated that teachers do not implement a CLT-based learner-centred method for various reasons, e.g. form-focused assessment and textbooks, although teachers' interviews and the examination of teacher training programmes have shown teachers know CLT and were prepared to teach communicatively. Implications and recommendations of the study are made in the concluding chapter.

Declaration

I acknowledge that this thesis is original and is my own work.

Signed..... Date 28/10/2008

Dedication

I'd like to send my deepest gratitude to my mother for her patience in standing by my side giving me advice. Words are not enough to express the way I feel for her, but all I can say is 'thank you and God bless you'. I'd also like to thank my family who stood by my side and helped me a lot with their encouragement and their advice.

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List of Abbreviations

ACTFL	American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
EAL	English as an Additional Language
ALM	Audio-Lingual Method
BA	Bachelor of Arts
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills
CAH	Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis
CEFR	Council of Europe Framework of Reference
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
COLT	Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching
CPH	Critical Period Hypothesis
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
FL	Foreign Language
FLT	Foreign Language Teaching
GTM	Grammar-Translation Method
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language

LAD	Language Acquisition Device
MOE	Ministry of Education
NL	Native Language
PAAET	Public Authority for Applied Education and Training
PLD	Primary Linguistic Data
PPP	Present- Practice- Produce
SL	Second Language
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
S-S/C	Student to Student or to Class
TEFL	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TL	Target Language
TPR	Total Physical Response
T-S/C	Teacher to Student or to Class
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

Chapter One

Introduction

1.0 Introduction

Observation has shown that people of all ages can acquire more than one language when the right conditions exist. This can take place in naturalistic settings (in the country where the target language is the native language), in a classroom whether the target language (TL) is the native language (NL) of the country (e.g. learning English in England) or whether it is not the native language in the country but there is plentiful exposure to the target language (e.g. immersion programmes[1] in Canada). Sometimes the target language is not the native language of the country and there is far less exposure to the target language (e.g. learning English as a foreign language (FL) in Kuwait, the country that is the focus of this thesis). Here if learners are to become fluent speakers, the classroom needs to provide TL input, ideally where the language is contextualized and meaningful, focusing on listening and speaking to compensate for the poverty of the input.[2] There is a need for authentic language use wherein the classroom language is used for communication and to achieve tasks with it.

Do we know how best to teach a second language in a foreign language setting? The history of foreign language teaching has witnessed the development of a number of approaches, methods and techniques (Byram, 2000; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). An approach refers to theoretical principles behind language teaching and learning (Antony, 1965; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Method describes a plan for presenting language in an organized manner to learners (Antony, 1965). Techniques are the strategies teachers use to, for example, explain vocabulary (Antony, 1965). This distinction between approach, method and technique will be used in this thesis.

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[1] Defined as a form of bilingual education in which children who speak only one language enter a school where a second language is the medium of instruction for all pupils (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992:174).

[2] Reference to input needs consideration, CLT, the focus of this study is largely an output based method.

Much research has also been devoted to finding out how best to teach the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing as well as grammar and vocabulary. The search has introduced a number of methods, some of which are still used today. The development of so many methods has been a response, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001), to the changes in the kind of proficiency (e.g. oral vs. written) that learners are thought to need.[3] In the 1970's, in particular, there was a major shift to learners' need for communicating in a second language away from a focus on grammar and translation. This shift was crucial, especially for foreign language learners who leave school unable to use their foreign language in actual communication. So, FL countries adopted this shift to communication as it was seen to satisfy their students' needs for fluency. As English became a lingua franca by the 1990s it was seen as necessary to teach it for communication as it became the mostly taught foreign language worldwide (Gebhard, 2006; Carrick, 2007).

The teaching of English as a second (ESL) or as a foreign language (EFL) started to become important after World War II. A great demand for English courses by immigrants, refugees, and foreign students took place in the United Kingdom, Canada, the United States, and Australia (Richards, 2001). When English was introduced in schools, it was first introduced at the secondary level in 1950s. But, since the application of the Communicative Approach/Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in national curricula after the publication of Wilkins's book *Notional Syllabuses* (1976) educationalists/researchers in many countries have observed that students can not communicate as well as expected after leaving secondary school, with eight years of English, as they start their university study (e.g. Al-Mutawa, 1994; Al-Khwaiter, 2001; Tang, 2002). Educationalists (e.g. Johnstone, 1994; Gramer, 1999; Tucker & Donato, 1999) began to see the need to introduce English in primary schools, and English has now been introduced in primary schools in EFL countries (e.g. Taiwan, Japan, Qatar, China, etc.) including those in Europe and the rest of the world.[4] The rationale for introducing foreign language teaching at a lower level was the belief that when learners are exposed to a foreign language for more time it would

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[3] Richards and Rodgers refer, for example, to the changing educational realities in Europe with the interdependence of European countries and the need to teach the major languages of the European Common Market (2001:154).

[4] EFL countries are those where English, the target language, is taught as a subject at school and is not usually used in daily life interaction or at home.

help them reach a higher level by the time they finish school (Johnstone, 1994). However, there is some evidence that primary languages have little or no effect on final attainment, this is the result of other factors that need consideration such as pupils' motivation and aptitude, the teachers' proficiency in the language, kind of materials used, the methodology used, time and amount of practice (see e.g. Byram, 2000; Nikolov, 2000). Research has also shown the benefit on acquisition of pre-puberty exposure to a second language (e.g. Johnson and Newport, 1989 in target language settings). However, less is known about the benefits of early introduction in foreign language settings, particularly in non-immersion settings (Cameron, 2001), compared with what we know from the huge body of literature on secondary EFL in the classroom. Importantly for the teacher, findings which exist from the secondary level do not automatically apply at the primary level. One needs to consider how children learn a second language in connection with how they should be taught (Brewster, Ellis, and Girard, 2004).

After reviewing the literature on CLT implementation in EFL countries, researchers (e.g. Crawford, 2001) found that CLT, while stated in the national curriculum goals, was not actually implemented and instruction was grammar-based or language-centred. Crawford lists a number of constraints on teachers' practice that may have led to this. Most of these constraints are related to the other three components of FL delivery, namely: textbook/materials, assessment and teacher training programmes. The study to be discussed in this thesis intends to investigate teachers' practice to answer a bigger question of whether the components mentioned here work together towards the fulfilment of curriculum goals and how they affect teachers' practice in the classroom. The study takes Kuwait as a case study where all these components are pre-planned by one authority, the Ministry of Education, to find out whether they work in harmony.

1.1 Background of the study

In this chapter I will start with a discussion of the history of foreign language teaching approaches and methods to set the context of my research, briefly showing how methods develop according to the changing needs of learners at the time each method was developed and used. This will lead to a short discussion of the Communicative

Approach/Communicative Language Teaching and to a consideration of some of the difficulties that seem to be found in EFL settings with CLT implementation at all levels. This will lead the discussion to the rationale for introducing a foreign language at the primary stage and to a discussion of young learners' characteristics. The following section discusses the main research questions set out by this study, and the last section lays out the contents of the rest of the thesis.

Foreign language teaching methods essentially began with the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) introduced between 1840 and 1940. GTM states the goal of foreign language learning to learn a language to be able to read its literature. This was the need at the time (Stern, 1983; Richards and Rodgers, 2001). This method involves the rote-learning of grammar rules and the translation of texts, with a focus on written skills. Oral communication is ignored (Major, 1988). So, with the increasing need for English by the 1950s (as noted above) as well as for other foreign languages for real use (including oral communication, reading/writing), there was a need for a method/approach that would address this need.

The decline of GTM[5] coincided with the introduction of the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) which was later discussed in Lado's (1957) Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) and based on Skinner's Behaviorism (1957). Under Behaviorism, language learning was seen as the formation of habits, so the assumption is that a person learning a second language will use the habits formed in the first language where these interfere with those needed for the second language.[6] According to ALM, language needs to be taught by focusing on intensive oral drilling of sentence patterns and on dialogue learning to avoid errors that are thought to result from first language habit interference.

Chomsky (1959) criticized Behaviourism (Skinner, 1957) when he argued that children know things about the structure of their language beyond what they hear; that is, language is based on their innate ability (Universal Grammar) to discover the rules

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[5]GTM is not based on a theory of learning to provide a rationale for its use or relate it to issues in linguistics, psychology, or educational theory (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

[6] However, where the first language and the target language are similar, learners will acquire target language structure with ease (Lado, 1957).

of the language from the input they are exposed to. This ability is held by a large number of researchers working in generative Second Language Acquisition (SLA) to be present for first language learners, child second language learners and also older second language learners (White, 1989 and for earlier claims, see Selinker, 1972 on interlanguage). Chomsky and Skinner, however, were referring to first rather than second language acquisition. Despite criticism from theoretical perspectives, (Savignon, 1997; Major, 1988) aspects of the GTM as well as the ALM are still widely used today in foreign language teaching, as we shall see in later chapters.

The reason for shifting methods seems not only to be the changing needs of learners, as noted above, but also a great deal of compelling evidence that some methods did not work (e.g. ALM). There are various other approaches and methods, and while they are not pertinent to the present study, as we will see, these, or aspects of these, can be found being used by teachers worldwide nowadays who use the combination of methods in their classrooms referred to as the Eclectic Method (see Richards and Rodgers, 2001 for details).[7] The dominant approach worldwide, at least on paper, has been and continues to be the Communicative Approach. Developed in the 1970s as a result of the work of the Council of Europe and the writings of Wilkins (1972) (see Chapter 2 for details), it involves promotion of real communication (Widdowson, 1978; Brumfit, 1979; Savignon, 1997). The motivation stems from Hymes' (1972) criticism of Chomsky (see above) for his exclusive focus on abstract linguistic competence. For Hymes, competence is more than abstract knowledge of the language; it is the use of that knowledge in communication. So, according to CLT, activities where language is used and where meaningful tasks promote learning should be the focus of instruction (Littlewood, 1984, Mitchell, 1994) and language itself has to be meaningful to the learner to promote such learning (Brumfit, 1984; Savignon, 2002; see Chapter 2 for further details).

Since the development of CLT, researchers and educationalists have been interested in investigating its success in the classroom (see e.g. Englezakis, 1998; Yang, 2000; Al-Khwaiter, 2001; Crawford, 2001; Kirkgoz, 2006). It has been investigated from a

[7] The Eclectic Method is the practice of using features of several different methods in language teaching, for example, by using audio-lingual and CLT techniques (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992) and more marginal techniques such as Total Physical Response (Asher, 1965).

variety of perspectives including its implementation in the classroom and teachers' attitudes and beliefs towards its implementation. Although most teachers in these studies showed positive attitudes towards CLT, they reported difficulties with its implementation due to a number of influences, to be discussed in Chapter Two. For example, Crawford's (2001) investigation in Taiwanese primary schools using classroom observation and teacher interviews led to the conclusion that problems such as exam pressure exist with its implementation. Al-Mutawa (2003) looked at teachers' attitudes towards implementation of CLT at all levels (secondary, intermediate, and primary) in Kuwait and attributed problems in implementation to teacher dissatisfaction with CLT (See Chapter Two for details).

Where the focus is on testing vocabulary and grammar rather than on communicative competence (Crawford, 2001), we see that testing linguistic competence alone, although it is a prerequisite for communicative competence, is not enough to show that someone is communicatively competent (Canale and Swain, 1980). Other competencies such as discourse, sociolinguistics, and strategic competence are needed to be able to use the second language, and should also be assessed. Other difficulties that have been observed for teachers' practice, as reported by Al-Mutawa (2003) and Crawford (2001) are textbooks and materials that are grammar-based and a syllabus that is too demanding to include communicative activities. Equally relevant is that teacher training programmes are not seen as preparing teachers to handle the new approach often proposed in national or regional curriculum goals and objectives (Al-Khwaiter, 2001 Zhenhui, 2002). These constraints on CLT implementation are reported not only by teachers teaching at secondary and post-secondary level but also by primary school teachers. So, one may ask, what is the benefit of introducing a foreign language in primary school if we will end up with the same constraints?

As noted above Johnstone (1994) and also Sharpe (2001) argue that the benefit of introducing a FL early in school gives young learners more time to practice the language. This also provides early exposure where language acquisition is easier, and because of flexibility of brain functions, there is more chance of the learner becoming fully proficient in the language. Still, we do not know what goes on in the classroom and whether these benefits actually matter. How do teachers teach primary school children? While we know a considerable amount about how methods are implemented

at higher levels (where we have the studies investigating implementation), it is not clear that we know enough about how methods are implemented at the primary stage. Detailed knowledge is required to understand how classroom practices do or do not suit the learners' age and level, and how various practices relate to the teachers' background knowledge and the conditions under which teaching/learning takes place. Understanding these inter-related factors is a pre-requisite for the success of any method (Breen and Candlin, 2001). For Nation (1996) an environmental analysis which includes looking at teachers, learners, and the wider context is fundamental in course design. At the beginning of primary school, CLT ideally means the teaching of Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS, Cummins, 1984) i.e. activities where language is heavily contextualized through action, realia, and gestures and involve pupils as active participants in non-verbal as well as verbal activity (Johnstone, 1994). According to Hughes (2001), the primary stage is the stage where pupils have the opportunity to acquire basic oral skills that are later developed in secondary school.

Knowing the kind of method included in a national curriculum does not provide a picture of how it is implemented. As pointed out above, research has shown that factors beyond teachers' control exert an important influence on teachers' practice. But we need to know more how those factors interrelate and how they dynamically affect teachers' practices in the classroom. As we will see in Chapter Two, what researchers have been doing so far is focusing on the features of the method used or on teachers' practices in the classroom and reporting a list of constraints concerning the implementation of that method (e.g. CLT). The fact that the same constraints are regularly pointed out suggests missing links, e.g. between curriculum goals and objectives, textbook and materials, assessment/testing, teacher training and teacher knowledge and actual practice.

The present study thus takes a holistic approach in investigating in a small country (Kuwait) a set of factors (curriculum goals and objectives; textbooks/materials; teacher training programs; assessment/testing; teacher knowledge, and classroom practice) and probes how they might be linked in the delivery of primary English. Most research, as will be discussed in Chapter Two, has either looked at teacher knowledge using interviews or questionnaires or at teacher practice using classroom

observation (see e.g. Al-Kwaiter, 2001, Crawford, 2001). This study attempts to go further and look at both, using classroom observation, and interview, for the same group of teachers. The starting point is findings of projects, studies, reports, and conferences from the Kuwaiti Ministry of Education on primary and secondary pupils' achievement in English. A conference held in 1993 led to the introduction of English at the primary stage based on conclusions that pupils were not performing as expected and that they were leaving secondary school unable to use English properly (Al-Mutawa, 1994). A 1998 study on grade four primary school children's performance using different tests across subjects showed English performance was below average (44.8%) compared with their performance in other subjects (65%). Additional reports in 1998 and 1999 have pointed to similar problems with primary, intermediate, and secondary school student achievement in English (Ministry of Education Library Documents). And recently, Al-Mutawa's study (2003) above has pointed out teachers' dissatisfaction with CLT implementation pointing to similar constraints.

What makes such a study feasible is the fact that in Kuwait, the curriculum, the textbooks/materials, the teacher training programs, and assessment/testing are planned and controlled by one authority (the Ministry of Education). According to the curriculum, Kuwait is now (since 2005) implementing an 'integrated approach' i.e. 'weak' CLT in primary English teaching, where a focus on both accuracy and fluency is the goal (see Chapter Three). This is an attempt to address substandard English scores. The wide-ranging multi-factor investigation conducted involves looking at teachers' practice as an initial step to first discover how this new approach is being implemented, and then moves on to investigate the other factors mentioned above to find out how they relate to what occurs in the classroom.

1.2 Research questions and hypotheses

The research questions investigated by this thesis are:

1. How do the components of FL delivery (namely textbook/materials, assessment and teacher training) work together and towards the fulfilment of National Curriculum goals, which specify a CLT-based learner-centred method?
2. Are teachers implementing a CLT-based learner-centred method?

3. Do teachers' beliefs and knowledge map onto their practice and the other components of FL delivery?
4. Do teachers' perceptions of their own practice match up with their actual practice?

Added to the above, the important role of educational training, both pre-service and in-service, on teachers' practice has been documented in the literature (see e.g. Gower & Walters, 1983; Thomspon, 1998; Gold, 1999; Darling-Hammond, 1999; Ducharme, 1999; Darling-Hammond & Hammerness, 2005) as well as the important role of experience on teachers' practice (Hughes, 2001; Castejon & Martinez, 2001; Hogan, Rabinowitz & Craven, 2003). The 23 teachers studied were therefore categorized according to their educational background (those with BA in Education and those with BA in English and Literature) and according to their experience. This led to two hypotheses pertaining only to classroom observation for which Frohlich and Spada's COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) Observation Scheme was used:

1. Teachers with an Education background will be more learner-centred than those with no Education background.
2. Teachers with more experience will be more learner-centred than those with less.

1.3 Composition of the thesis

To address the issues mentioned above and these research questions, Chapter Two first discusses the differences between foreign language learning and second language learning[8] to show the constraints that exist on foreign language learning. Then it discusses in more detail the history of some of the language teaching approaches and methods that are believed to be currently in use today (the chapter sets the context to better understand teachers' practices in the classroom when they are discussed in Chapter Five), with specific focus on CLT. The chapter then takes a closer look at how children learn a foreign language and how best to teach them, including what the

[8] EAL or English as an Additional Language is now often used which is more comprehensive and gives importance to the speakers' other languages e.g. speakers may speak two or more languages other than English (see e.g. Haslam, Wilkin & Kellet, 2006).

arguments are for introducing a foreign language at the primary level. A brief discussion of the components of foreign language delivery follows to highlight their role in language teaching and to find out how they are realized in the classroom once studies on CLT implementation are discussed. This will lead us to review some of the primary EFL studies to find out whether teachers implement CLT when this is in the national curriculum and if they do not what the constraints preventing them are. The section ends with a discussion of the current approach and methods promoted for primary EFL classrooms in Kuwait in connection with the Kuwaiti Curriculum.

Chapter Three looks at Kuwait's primary EFL curriculum, starting with an overview of how curriculum goals and objectives are formed in general (Nation, 1996; Richards, 2001). It then looks at Kuwait's curriculum goals and objectives in detail. The focus then is on whether these goals and objectives emphasize fluency (i.e. according to CLT's main principles), which is part of the 'integrated approach' mentioned in the curriculum. The chapter then moves on to a discussion of Kuwait's primary EFL curriculum to consider whether it applies the standard principles of curriculum design (Nation, 1996). This includes detailed consideration of curriculum goals, the current main textbook in primary EFL in Kuwait and assessment/testing. The issue addressed is whether those initial components work in harmony towards the fulfilment of curriculum goals and objectives. Finally, Kuwaiti teacher training programmes are presented in relation to the preparation of teachers to fulfil curriculum goals and objectives, to use the textbook/materials used, and to support assessment/testing. But whether all the components work in harmony can only be determined by looking at Kuwait classrooms and talking to teachers.

The fourth chapter, the methodology chapter, starts with a discussion of the pilot study first conducted to begin exploring primary EFL classrooms in Kuwait. Then the chapter discusses the methodology used in the main study. The rationale for conducting classroom observation as well as teachers' structured interviews is given, along with specific procedures such as the instruments used, the participants, and procedures for classroom observation and teachers' interviews. Methodological issues such as ethics and triangulation which arose during the course of the study are discussed. Procedures for the analysis of classroom observation and teachers'

interviews are discussed and the rationale for using qualitative and quantitative analysis is given.

The fifth chapter presents the results of the data collected during classroom observation. Data is analysed quantitatively by applying statistical measures (four statistical tests are used) to show significance levels and mean ranks. Then the qualitative analysis of the data is presented.

Chapter Six presents the results of the data collected during the teachers' interviews. The data are discussed quantitatively by calculating the frequency counts of teachers' answers and qualitatively by providing quotations from the tape recorded interviews.

Chapter Seven gives some answers to the research questions set out in this chapter. It discusses classroom observation and teachers' interview data as well as curriculum goals, the textbook/materials used, assessment, and teacher training programmes. It aims to show where mismatches occur between the objectives of different components involved in primary EFL delivery and how these influence teacher practices. The chapter not only gives a final summary of the whole thesis, but most importantly, it draws some implications and raises some recommendations based on the discussion of the data.

Chapter Two
Primary English Foreign Language Teaching

2.0 Introduction

Although this study is interested in primary foreign language teaching, this chapter sets the study in the wider context of foreign language teaching where current trends at the primary level originated. The chapter starts by clarifying the difference between foreign and second language teaching and then moves on to give an overview of the main methods in language teaching, be it those known to be used with primary children and beginners (Brewster, Ellis, and Girard, 2004) or those most widely used in textbooks and by teachers of older learners and learners at higher levels (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). This chapter discusses how children learn a foreign or a second language to find out on the one hand what underlies current trends to start a foreign language at primary level, and on the other hand to investigate recommendations for methods and materials specific to young learners. The components involved in the delivery of a foreign language programme, namely curriculum goals, textbooks and materials, assessment, and teacher training programmes, are then discussed to show how they need to map together and work towards the delivery of foreign or second language teaching. Being now the most widely recommended method worldwide (Kumaravadevilu, 2006), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is covered in detail, and studies done on CLT implementation, particularly at the primary level, and particularly in the foreign language teaching of English (EFL) are discussed. The chapter concludes with Kuwait as the proposed case study of CLT implementation in primary EFL for how the components of foreign language teaching (FLT) delivery work towards the implementation of CLT.

2.1 Foreign language teaching (FLT)

There is a difference between learning and teaching a foreign language and learning and teaching a second language according to educational theorists (e.g. Rixon, 2000; Richards, 2001; Gebhard, 2006). Learning a foreign language is when the learning takes place in a country where the foreign language is not the first or native language of the country (Gebhard, 2006), for example learning English in Kuwait, an Arabic speaking country. Learning a second language, however, is when the learning takes

place in a country where the language is the first or second language of the country (e.g. learning English in the U.K. or India) (Gebhard, 2006). Gebhard further points out that there are other differences between these two settings. For example, learners in many foreign language (FL) settings share the same first language and the same history while in most second language (SL) settings they speak different languages and come from different countries. Other differences, as reported by Gebhard, are that in most FL settings learners have fewer chances of using English outside the classroom while in SL settings learners have a greater chance of using the language outside the classroom. Another difference that Gebhard reports is that there are differences in the goals of learning the language in the two settings. In a foreign language setting, the language is usually taught and learned to pass exams to enter university and continue higher education, or to be able to use the foreign language to communicate but often at a basic level. In a SL setting the goal is to use the language as a native speaker and to be able to interact in a culturally appropriate way. However, Gebhard says that the differences between the two settings do not mean that all learners in one setting would always have the same goals. He gives an example of learning/teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) and English as a second language (ESL)

> Such examples certainly illustrate the inadequacy of considering all learners within an EFL and ESL setting as having the same goals and considering all language programmes within these settings as alike. Such overgeneralizations can be quite misleading, even to the point of stereotyping all EFL learners as having certain language learning experiences and all ESL learners as having other experiences. (2006:41)

It could be argued that foreign language learning compared to second language learning as described above shows the need for more time to be devoted to teaching and learning the foreign language, especially when learners who share the same L1 only encounter the FL inside the classroom (where the teacher usually speaks the learners' L1) for only a few minutes a day for a few days a week (except for immersion and bilingual programmes) and where the teacher becomes the main source of input. In such a situation it is recommended that more time be spent on FL learning and teaching as Curtain (2000:90) says

> Learning outcomes tend to be associated with how much time is available for learning and how that time is actually spent.

She further explains

> The general belief is that the more time students spend working with the target language under the guidance of a skilled and fluent teacher, the greater will be the level of language proficiency they acquire (2000:90).

Other educational theorists report the same

> In principle, more time means more exposure, more opportunity to practice, and more chance of gaining mastery (Sharpe, 2001:36)

2.2 Methods in language teaching

We have now established that foreign language teaching (FLT) requires consideration about time devoted to teaching, especially because a second language context allows the opportunity for learners to get input outside the classroom or inside the classroom in a non-immersion context. The next step in this chapter will be to consider approaches and methods, as well as techniques teachers can use, as these not only reflect the principles behind recommendations for approaches and methods, but they also directly relate to how best to make use of limited classroom time.

In language teaching, some writers have made distinctions between method, approach and technique. For example, Antony (1963) sees an approach as a set of theoretical principles about language and language teaching and learning. A method, on the other hand, is the plan of how the material is going to be presented based on the chosen approach. Finally, a technique is the tool through which a specific method is implemented. According to this division the approach selected will determine the method, which will determine the techniques used to accomplish the specific objectives.

Richards and Rodgers (2001) revised Antony's framework and produced a different one. For approach, they kept the same definition used by Antony, however, they introduced the term 'design' instead of 'method' to refer to content i.e. the syllabus, learner roles, teacher roles, and instructional materials. They used the term 'procedure' to refer to all the activities, exercise and strategies teachers use in the classroom. In this thesis, I will use Antony's framework namely, approach, method and technique.

A more important issue that causes confusion in the language teaching profession is the number of methods that have come to be known in the literature. Kumaravadivelu (2006) notes that methods overlap in their principles and in their procedures

> It is not as if the existing methods provide distinct or discrete paths to language teaching. In fact, there is considerable overlap in their theoretical as well as practical orientation to L2 learning and teaching. (2006:90)

To address this, Kumaravadivelu proposes three categories where he sees various methods can fit. His categorization helps to give two specific perspectives from which we can take a global look at methods; language and learning. Those two perspectives are the main focus of any language teaching programme. Methods are categorized into language-centred methods, learner-centred methods and learning-centred methods.[1] While Richards and Rodgers (2001) categorize methods into major trends in the twentieth century language teaching, alternative approaches and methods, and current communicative approaches, those categories do not relate to the actual characteristics of the methods. For example, their categorization does not give an idea of how methods share or do not share specific characteristics. The same holds for Widdowson (1990), who categorized methods into 'structural' and 'communicative'. Such a categorisation would cause one to ask where a structural-communicative method would fit. Thus Kumaravadivelu's (2006) categorization seems the most useful as it sets boundaries between methods based on each method's distinctive features. Every method can fit into these three categories and in placing them there we think about what the method focuses on, what its main principles are and classroom procedures involve. In the next section, methods will be presented and put into these categories. They will be presented in the order that they came to be known by educational theorists and applied linguists, where every method tried to overcome the shortcomings of the preceding one (e.g. Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). We will see that these attempts did not always succeed. The aim of this discussion is to trace how CLT evolved.

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[1] Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define 'learner-centred' as learners having different needs and interests that would influence their motivation to learn and the effectiveness of their learning, and they talk about necessities, lacks and wants. 'Learning-centred' according to them assumes that learning is not a cognitive but a social process of negotiation between the individual and society.

2.2.1 Language-centred methods

Language-centred methods (Widdowson, 1990; Richards & Rodgers, 2001) were the first to be used to teach foreign languages. These methods were highly influential and remain in wide-spread use (Crawford, 2001) as we will also see in this thesis.

Language-centred methods are defined by their main focus on linguistic forms i.e. grammar. The assumption is that such a focus will lead to a mastery of the foreign language and this can be used to communicate outside the classroom (Widdowson, 1990; Howatt and Widdowson, 2004). Language learning is intentional and learners' attention is drawn to the linguistic forms of the language through grammar explanation and form-focused exercises. Language learning is seen as additive where discrete items of the language (e.g. grammar, vocabulary) are graded and taught according to their difficulty (Savignon, 1997).

2.2.1.1 The Grammar-Translation Method (GTM)

GTM was the first method developed during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries (1840s-1940s) (Richards & Rodgers, 2001) for the purpose of

> helping students read and appreciate foreign language literature. It was also hoped that, through the study of the grammar of the target language, students would become more familiar with the grammar of their native language and that this familiarity would help them speak and write their native language better. Finally, it was thought that foreign language learning would help students grow intellectually. (Larsen-Freeman, 2000:11).

The goal of foreign language learning is not for the purpose of using the language, but to learn the language to be able to read its literature, translate or for mental improvement. Reading and writing are therefore the major focus (Byram, 2000). Accuracy is emphasized, grammar is taught deductively, vocabulary is taught using bilingual word lists, dictionaries, and memorization, and the students' native language is the medium of instruction (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Much of a lesson can be spent translating sentences into and out of the target language (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). The classroom is teacher-centred, where interaction is from the teacher to students, with little student-student interaction. Errors are viewed negatively and corrected by the teacher (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). This method has long been criticized because it focuses on reading and writing skills at the expense of speaking

and listening (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004).[2] Its emphasis on learning and memorizing grammar rules neglected communication skills and use of language to express one's meaning. As we will see aspects of GTM are still used by foreign language teachers (Byram, 2000; Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

2.2.1.2 The Audio-Lingual Method (ALM)

After World War II by the mid-1950s, ALM developed in the US due to GTM's lack of focus on listening and speaking and in response to the need in the armed forces to communicate with non-English speakers (Byram, 2000; Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). Principles of ALM are drawn from structural linguistics and Behaviourist psychology (Skinner, 1957).[3] According to structural linguists, language consists of phonemes, morphemes, phrases, clauses, and sentences that are linearly connected. Also language is seen as aural-oral where listening and speaking are the main skills.

> Every language was looked upon as unique, each having a finite number of structural patterns. Each structure can be analyzed, described, systematized, and graded and by implication, can be learned and taught by taking a similar discrete path. (Kumaravadivelu, 2006:99)

Learning takes place through a Behaviourist process of stimulus, response and reinforcement.

Language learning then is seen as a process of mechanical habit formation through repetition. Because habits are formed through constant repetition accompanied by positive reinforcement, under ALM pattern drills are important in learning and these and dialogues are the basis of classroom learning (Brooks, 1964). Linguistic input presented to the learners is highly controlled. Student-teacher interaction takes the form of presentation (where learners listen to dialogues and repeat them, Practice involves use of the new structural item in mechanical drills and Production involves use of role play in dialogues similar to the ones practiced in class (Lado, 1977). Errors

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[2] Early dissatisfaction with GTM led to a reform movement towards the end of the nineteenth century and an increased interest in speech as opposed to writing. The movement led to the development of the Direct Method in 1860. It encourages spontaneous use of the FL in the classroom, grammar is taught inductively and vocabulary is taught through mime and pictures (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). Later Palmer (1940) and Hornby (1950) wanted to develop a stronger foundation for an oral approach which led to Situational Language Teaching where language is taught by practicing basic structures in meaningful situation-based activities (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

[3] A stimulus triggers a certain response (behaviour) which is reinforced through feedback (reward) to encourage the behaviour to be repeated and eventually to become a habit.

are corrected immediately before they become bad habits and mimicry and memorization are considered the best way to lead to L2 use (Brooks, 1964).

Like the GTM, this method was subsequently criticized (Byrne, 1986, Major, 1988). One of the criticisms was that by the end of an ALM programme, learners had linguistic knowledge but were unable to use it to communicate outside the classroom. This is held to be the result of practicing the language mechanically without using it creatively or meaningfully (Byram, 2000). However, the main criticism came from Chomsky (1966) who criticized Behaviourist theory and argued that children acquire their L1 through an innate knowledge of the principles and parameters of Universal Grammar during a critical period (from two to twelve years of age).[4] He added that

> Language is not a habit structure. Ordinary linguistic behaviour characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of great subtraction and intricacy. (1966:153)

Equally important was sociolinguist Hymes (1979), who argued that communicative competence i.e. the "overall underlying knowledge and ability for language use which the speaker-listener possesses" (1979:13) does not only depend on grammatical knowledge but also knowledge of the sociocultural norms governing day to day communication. Although aspects of ALM are still in wide use today and it suits teaching children because, as Brewster, Ellis and Girard point out, teachers feel comfortable using it

> It continues to be popular with many teachers since that is how they were taught; it is very manageable; and is especially useful for teachers with fairly low language levels themselves. It encourages children to listen carefully and memorize chunks of language, which are important parts of language learning. (2004:44)

ALM techniques are used in combination with other techniques (as will be seen in this study). Kumaravadivelu (2006) argues that the reason for the continued wide spread of GTM and ALM techniques is that language learning includes the learning of individual linguistic items. Explicit Focus on linguistic items can help the learner examine, understand, and organize the linguistic system of the language. Repetition

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[4] It is important to note that Chomsky is referring to L1 acquisition and he has no direct role in formulating changes to language teaching theory.

and reinforcement are thought to be helpful, particularly, at the beginning of language learning.

2.2.2 Learner-centred methods

Where oral proficiency is the goal, language-centred methods assume that focussing on linguistic forms will eventually lead to communicative use (Widdowson, 1990). Hymes, as discussed above, saw the need for a more general theory of language that incorporates communication and culture and his ideas inspired new methods for language teaching where the focus is on the learner's needs, wants, and situations as a user of language. These methods

> seek to provide opportunities for learners to practice pre-selected, pre-sequenced linguistic structures and communicative notions/functions through meaning-focused activities, assuming that a preoccupation with form and function will ultimately lead to target language mastery and that learners can make use of both formal and functional repertoire to fulfill their communicative needs outside the class. (Kumaravadivelu, 2006:91)

Like language-centred methods, learning is intentional, linear and additive. However, learner-centred educationalists aim for both grammatical accuracy as well as communicative fluency (Wilkins, 1972). Therefore, linguistic structures are presented in communicative contexts. Proponents of methods that fit under this category, such as Communicative Language Teaching, believe that functions and notions can be mapped onto one or more linguistic forms and presented and explained to the learner.[5] The difference between the language-centred methods and these methods according to Kumaravadivelu (2006) is that

> In the case of language-centred methods the accumulated entities represent linguistic structures, and in the case of learner-centred methods, they represent structures plus notions and functions. (2006:91)

2.2.2.1 Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative Language Teaching came into existence in the 1970's as a result of Hymes (1972), the work of the Council of Europe (Halliday 1975, the writings of Wilkins 1972, 1976, and van Ek & Alexander 1980). Wilkins's document (1972)

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[5] Functions may be described as the communicative purposes for which we use language, while notions are the conceptual meanings (objects, entities, states of affairs, logical relationships, and so on) expressed through language. (Nunan, 1988:35)

where he defined notions i.e. concepts such as time and place, and communicative functions such as requesting or apologizing, which was developed into the book *Notional Syllabuses* (Wilkins, 1976), influenced the development of CLT (see Mitchell, 1994; Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Howatt and Widdowson, 2004). CLT's roots can ultimately be traced back to Chomsky's criticism of structural linguistic theory (1966). Chomsky's ideas about linguistic competence, the innate knowledge of the linguistic system of the language, called ALM into question based on the idea that learners know more about the language than what they could have learned if they depended only on the input they are exposed to. Hymes (1972) view that communicative competence and socio-cultural context must also be considered in addition to linguistic competence formed the basis of CLT.[6]

For learner-centred pedagogists language is used to express meaning and the linguistic structures of a language reflect its functional as well as its communicative use, with consideration of the socio-cultural norms of the speech community. The basic units of language are not only structures but also functions and notions.

Learner-centred pedagogists (e.g. Brumfit, 1984) argue that language learning should focus on the development of accuracy as well as fluency resulting in the need for focusing on both grammar and communication.[7] Accordingly, learner-centred teachers provide purposeful activities such as information-gap activities in which one partner has part of the information while the other has the remaining part and each has to negotiate to fill in the gaps and finish the task. They give learners freedom to express their own meaning instead of repeating models used by others; contextualize language through meaning-focused dialogues and media; and use authentic language during communication e.g. asking genuine questions where the speaker does not know the answer. They also present language as discourse rather than isolated words and sentences, tolerate errors, and finally integrate the four skills (Johnson, 1985; Savignon, 1997; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Klapper, 2006).

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[6]Sociolinguistic competence is how utterances are produced and understood appropriately. Strategic competence is the verbal and non-verbal strategies used to compensate break down in communication. Discourse competence is the coherence and cohesion of utterances. (Canale & Swain, 1980)

[7] Fluency is the ability to operate interactionally, both verbally and non-verbally, to exercise a general resourcefulness in adapting to the demands created by exchange context and participants" (Guillot, 1999:25).

> These and other related measures recognize the importance of communicative abilities of negotiation, interpretation, and expression that are considered to be the essence of learner-centred methods. (Kumaravadivelu, 2006:120)

The teacher's role is thus to facilitate communication between learners, and between learners, activities and texts. The teacher is also seen as an organizer of resources by creating different situations for communication to take place and is seen as a resource him/herself, providing help when needed. S/he also acts as a guide, guiding learners through the activities and tasks (Savignon, 1997; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). As for learners, they are seen as active, choosing what to say and when to say it rather than passive, repeating what the teacher says and memorizing without necessarily understanding (Breen & Candlin, 2001).

After World War II, changes in educational systems created the need for foreign language learning and the need to learn English for different purposes, such as further education or vocation (Mitchell, 1994). Foreign languages were first introduced to secondary schools in the 1960s and 1970s according to Mitchell. This created the need for new methods to suit the learners' needs for communication; old methods such as GTM and ALM merely focused on structural aspects of the language. To be able to communicate a learner needs what Hymes (1972) calls 'communicative competence', where knowledge of language entails more than a knowledge of its grammar and vocabulary; they also require a knowledge of how to use the language appropriately in different situations. Canale and Swain (1980) tried to specify what communicative competence entails and suggested the four competencies: grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic competence. Not only methods but syllabuses were also affected by the movement towards communication and there was also a realization that structural syllabuses were no longer adequate to achieve communicative competence. There was a need for a syllabus that would enable learners to communicate at an early stage. Wilkins (1972) came up with a functional-notional syllabus where grammar was taught through functions such as apologizing, requesting, etc. and notions such as time, frequency, etc. This was developed by Van Ek and Alexander (1980) in his Threshold Level English, designed to help beginner adult learners to achieve basic communicative competence by teaching vocabulary, grammar and other skills alongside their functional and notional use.

Similar to language-centred methods, learner-centred methods use Presentation and Practice, but in Production learners are provided with situations or information-gap activities where the focus is on communicating a certain message or solving a puzzle and they are free to choose the linguistic forms they need (Klapper, 2006). Kumaravadivelu further explains saying that:

> Learner-centred pedagogists followed the same presentation-practice-production sequence popularized by language-centred pedagogists but with one important distinction: whereas the language-centred pedagogists presented and helped learners practice and produce grammatical items, learner-centred pedagogists presented and helped learners practice and produce grammatical as well as notional/functional categories of language. (2006:125)

Because of its presentation, practice, and production phases of teaching, and its linear and additive view of language learning, Kumaravadivelu argues that CLT

> has not been significantly different from or demonstrably better than the language-centred pedagogy it sought to replace. (2006:132)

Original CLT, which was notional/functional, was not implemented as it should have been (as will be discussed below); focus was often put on linguistic accuracy at the expense of communicative fluency (Mitchell, 1994). Still, this form of CLT is widely used today as stated by applied linguists and educational writers (e.g. Berns, 1990; Thompson, 1996).

> The focus on the learner and the emphasis on communication have certainly made the pedagogy very popular, particularly among language teachers around the world, some of whom take pride in calling themselves "communicative language teachers" (Kumaradivelu, 2006:132)

This form of CLT was later coined as weak CLT by Howatt:

> The weak version which has become more or less standard practice in the last ten years, stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider programme of language teaching. (1984:279)

Criticism of weak CLT (Allwright, 1979, Mitchell, 1994) led to radical refinement in its basic principles focusing on the process of learning rather than on the products of teaching (Prabhu, 1987). The result was what Howatt (1984) referred to as strong CLT or a learning-centred method. The former

> merely tinkers with the traditional language-centred pedagogy by incorporating a much-needed communicative component into it. (Kumaravadivelu, 2006:132)

While strong CLT

> Advances the claim that language is acquired through communication, so that it is not merely a question of activating an existing but inert knowledge of the language, but of stimulating the development of the language system itself. (Howatt, 1984:279)

2.2.3 Learning-centred methods

If weak CLT could be described as 'learning to use English', strong CLT entails 'using English to learn it' (Howatt, 1984). We have seen that learner-centred methods in language teaching came to fill in the gap left by language-centred methods and their exclusive focus on structural forms of the language. The development of learner-centred methods included continued focus on forms (i.e. grammar). The assumption of weak CLT is that by focusing on both form and function learners will be able to use the L2 for communication outside the classroom (Howatt, 1984; Littlewood, 1988). However, criticism (Widdowson, 1990; Klapper, 2006) led to the introduction of learning-centred methods and what is now referred to as strong CLT. According to these methods learners are provided with situations where they can negotiate meaning through problem-solving tasks (Prabhu, 1987; Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). The assumption is that by focusing primarily on meaning while trying to solve a problem, learners will eventually master the target language (Howatt, 1984; Savignon, 2002). Being different from the above two types of methods this category of method sees language learning as incidental, i.e. grammar is learnt while learners are preoccupied with making meaning trying to solve the problem. It also sees language learning as nonlinear rather than intentional and additive, and therefore no pre-planned focus on structural forms is needed (Prabhu, 1987; Ellis, 2003).

2.2.3.1 The Communicational Teaching Project (strong CLT)

While weak CLT is, according to Kumaravadivelu's category, learner-centred, strong CLT is learning-centred. It dates back to a project initiated and directed by Prabhu (1987), who was an English studies specialist at the British Council in South India. It was developed, as Kumaravadivelu (2006:135) says "from a widespread dissatisfaction with a version of language-centred pedagogy followed in Indian

schools". The project was carried out for five years (1979-1984) in large classes in South India in primary and secondary schools.

Under strong CLT language is learned according to its use (Klapper, 2006). Importance is given to vocabulary and meaning, minimizing the role of grammar:

> Learning-centred pedagogy is exclusively and narrowly concerned with meaning-based input modifications to the exclusion of explicit form-based, and form-and meaning-based input modifications. (Kumaravadivelu, 2006:155)

The language learning theory underlying strong CLT according to Kumaravadivelu (2006) and others (e.g. Howatt, 1984; Littlewood, 1988) is that language learning is incidental rather than intentional, it focuses on meaning rather than forms, on comprehension rather than production (at least at the initial stages of language learning) and language development is cyclical rather than additive. The teacher is responsible for providing language in meaningful context, for integrating the four skills, for tolerating learners' errors and for giving pupils activities and tasks.

However, learning-centred methods were criticized (Major, 1988; Mitchell, 1994; Celce-Murcia, Dornyei & Thurrell, 1997; Klapper, 2006) for not making it clear as to what criteria to use to design, grade, and evaluate tasks, how to design tests that would reflect a learning-centred method, and how to design teacher-training programmes. Not only that, but as Medgyes (1986) says, it places a heavy burden on the teacher to be creative with content. Celce-Murcia et al (1997) and Long (1998) add that one of the criticisms towards CLT is the assumption that forms are learned incidentally through active involvement in tasks where focus is primarily on meaning. Other critics (e.g. Ryan, 2001) say that the communicative approach by focusing mainly on the speaking skill does not provide learners with a specific framework (e.g. Present/Practice/Produce) to work with where they would feel more comfortable to take risks and speak in front of others.

In summary, structural approaches to language teaching with their focus on forms are no longer favoured by educationalists, producing learners who end up not being able to communicate. However, strong CLT seems not to be favoured too by many teachers and educationalists as discussed above for many reasons but mainly because

of its neglect of a focus on forms which results in learners who are fluent but inaccurate. In an EFL context and, as discussed above, a context in which pupils do not practice the TL enough and where both fluency and accuracy become the goal of FL teaching/learning, weak CLT seems to be the answer. When curriculum goals, textbooks, assessment, and teacher training are examined in the next several chapters, this three-way distinction will be applied. As seen above, the communicative approach is the latest and most dominant approach worldwide. After the development of weak and strong CLT, textbook writers started producing textbooks that reflect a communicative syllabus.

2.3 CLT in practice: communicative syllabuses

For CLT to work, various types of syllabuses were introduced to replace the old grammar-based syllabuses (Nunan, 1988; Richards, 2001).[8] A comprehensive list of the main communicative syllabus types is reported by Yalden (1983). I will start by introducing weak CLT syllabuses since it is discussed first above. For example, a Structural-Functional Syllabus separates form and function, where forms are taught first before introducing functions. A Structures and Functions Syllabus is where grammar is the core of the syllabus and is taught in stages and all functions and notions go round this grammatical core. A Variable Focus Syllabus is when emphasis shifts from working on grammar to working on functions and to working on the instrumental use of the language in the study of school subjects. The fourth type is a Functional Syllabus where objectives specify the functions needed and the functions specify the choice and sequencing of grammatical items. There is also a Fully Notional Syllabus where all components of a syllabus including functions, structures and themes are braided together. As for strong CLT syllabuses, Fully Communicative Syllabus or Negotiated Syllabus is when learners decide the content and strategies to be taught with the teacher. A Content-Based Syllabus (see Nunan, 1988) is when content is derived from other subjects in the school curriculum such as science or other technical fields such as engineering. And finally Task-Based Syllabus (see

[8] In *Notional Syllabuses* Wilkins (1976) distinguished between two ways for syllabus organization, the synthetic syllabus is where learners are presented with data that is broken down analytically by the teacher and it is expected that learners will be able to synthesize and use it for communication (e.g. Structural Syllabuses where learners are presented with a list of structures graded by difficulty). The analytic syllabus, however, is where learners are presented with data that is not broken down and it is expected that learners will analyze this data subconsciously and use it for communication (e.g. Task-Based Syllabuses).

Willis, 1996; Howatt and Widdowson, 2004) constitutes communicative tasks that are graded according to the level of the learners from which vocabulary and grammar that is necessary for completing the tasks is taught. The different syllabuses reflect a movement from focusing on structures and functions where structures are either taught before functions, or both structures and functions are interweaved, or functions determine the structures needed, to content-based and task-based syllabuses, and finally to learner-generated syllabuses. The most radical of all syllabuses in terms of learner centeredness seems to be the learner-generated syllabuses or negotiated syllabuses where the syllabus is negotiated between teachers and learners. Yalden (1983) calls it fully communicative and he says it works with adult learners who know what they want to learn and can negotiate.

We now turn to how Kumaravadivelu's three-way distinction in terms of methods, and the communicative syllabuses, apply to primary English teaching; the focus of this thesis. Learner-centred methods and learning-centred methods, as Curtain and Dahlberg (2004) and others (Curtain & Pesola, 1994; Brewster, Ellis & Girard, 2004) state, are better suited for younger learners since they (as will be discussed below) are not as able as adults to handle language-centred methods where there is explicit focus on linguistic forms. Also not all syllabuses, as Yalden (1983) states, suit young learners, e.g. Negotiated Syllabuses and Grammatical (or structural) Syllabuses would not suit young learners because they are not yet cognitively developed.

2.4 How children learn a foreign language

Knowing that a syllabus is the list of items to be taught and knowing that some syllabuses suit children while others don't suggests that children learn differently from adults and therefore require different methods and therefore different syllabuses. The adoption of primary foreign language teaching is based on Lenneberg's (1967) well-known Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH), where he claims that language acquisition can only be fully successful during a critical period beginning from around age two and lasting till puberty. He further claims that acquisition of language after puberty will not be so easy or successful because of cerebral plasticity and lateralization of the language function.

> the individual appears to be most sensitive to stimuli at this time and to reserve some innate flexibility for the organization of brain functions

> to carry out the complex integration of sub-processes necessary for the smooth elaboration of speech and language. After puberty, the ability for self-organization and adjustment to the physiological demands of verbal behavior quickly declines. (1967:158)

Lenneberg's ideas mostly relate to first language acquisition. However, a young foreign language learner is different from a child acquiring his/her first or second language in the target language country (Cameron, 2001; Lightbown & Spada, 2006). The difference is due to the different environment in which foreign language learning occurs. As discussed above with respect to EFL in general, in many if not most foreign language learning programs, children are only exposed to the foreign language for 30 to 40 minutes a day for three to five days a week, while in first language acquisition and second language acquisition (SLA) children are exposed to the language for many hours everyday (Hughes, 2001). Also, the kind of language that EFL learners are exposed to is thought to be limited in terms of richness and variety of language forms compared to that which a child learning his/her first language or second language in the TL country is exposed to; "other important differences relate to the quality and amount of input and interaction available to learners in and outside the classroom" (Nikolov & Djigunovic, 2006:241). In addition, foreign language learners are usually forced to speak from the early stages of language learning in order to perform different tasks while in first language acquisition and immersion L2 acquisition children are allowed to listen and only speak when they are ready. In foreign language learning, teachers may correct a lot and they mainly correct errors of form (Vale and Feunteun, 1995) while in first language acquisition parents usually respond only to errors of meaning (Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

Studies done on child-adult differences in eventual attainment in second language acquisition in naturalistic settings agree that those who arrive as children generally attain higher levels of proficiency than those who arrive as adults (Asher & Garcia, 1969; Seliger, Krashen, & Ladefoged, 1975; Oyama, 1976; Oyama, 1978; Patkowski, 1980). However, studies comparing children and adolescents to adults in rate of second language acquisition in formal settings have shown adults are faster than young children but that they are not always better than adolescents in early stages of morphology and syntax development (Asher & Price, 1969, Olsen & Samuels, 1973; Snow & Hoefnagel-Hohle, 1977; Zhao & Morgan, 2004). Also, studies comparing

older (11-15) to younger children (8-10) in formal or experimental environments with similar treatments showed that older children acquire faster than younger children (Asher & Price, 1969; Olson & Samuels, 1973; Ekstrand, 1978; Zhao & Morgan, 2004).

So it appears that in formal settings older learners may be better in the rate of acquisition and in the initial stages of second language acquisition. As Zhao and Morgan (2004) indicate, adults' and adolescents' cognitive maturity (Johnstone, 1994; Hughes, 2001) and their longer experience in L1 give them an initial advantage over children in some aspects of L2 acquisition. Still, second language acquisition research has shown younger learners to be better in certain areas such as listening and phonology (see e.g. Vilke, 1988). Writers in education also argue that

> Young children do pick up accents and pronunciation very quickly, but this may have more to do with their phonological perception than with superior language learning abilities. (Drever, Moule & Peterson 1999:25)

Added to their advantages is the fact that younger learners are less affected by the affective and social factors that may hamper L2 acquisition in adults and adolescents (Johnstone, 1994; Zhao & Morgan, 2004). Nikolov and Djigunovic (2006), for example, explain

> One of the arguments for an early start is to develop children's positive attitudes. It is widely assumed that early foreign language instruction will, as a rule, contribute to children's favourable attitudes. (2006:246)

Other advantages for an early start, as discussed by educational theorists, are children's willingness to take risks

> Children often seem less embarrassed than adults at talking in a new language, and their lack of inhibition seems to help them get a more native-like accent. (Cameron, 2001:1)

Yet, another advantage, as Byram (2000) and Driscoll (1999) say, is that an early start offers more time to learn the language. Low, Duffield, Brown and Johnstone (1993) argue that under formal conditions real fluency, accuracy, and confidence need considerable time to develop. Despite this, time alone is not enough to guarantee success (Nikolov, 2000). Other factors need to be considered, such as the methodology used, the language competence of the teacher, the kind of materials

used, the provision of meaningful input and interaction, and individual differences between children (Byram, 2000; Brewster, Ellis & Girard, 2004).

Overall, research suggests an advantage for adults over children. Time is one of the main issues discussed as a rationale for introducing English in primary schools worldwide. There are good reasons for an early start in foreign language teaching (FLT). When considering how to take advantage of an early start, we need to consider how children learn a language so as to best tailor pedagogy. There are four main theories (see e.g. Fisher, 1995; Cameron, 2001) which will be discussed in chronological order, as they came to be known by educationalists.

The first is Behaviourism, developed by Skinner (1957) and discussed above with the Audio-Lingual Method. The belief is that, through the process of a stimulus-response-positive reinforcement, the behaviour will become a habit. The ALM, mentioned under methods in language teaching section 2.2.1.2., is based on the same theory of learning and since children have a higher phonological perception than adults this method is widely used with children. Children, as Cameron (2001) says, can produce things they have never heard said to them. So, this theory, as discussed above, was criticized and a new theory tried to explain children's learning called the Nativist Theory developed by Chomsky (1959). This theory believes that children have an innate Language Acquisition Device (LAD) which helps them process all the language they hear and produce their own utterances. Another theory to explain language learning is the cognitive-developmental theory represented by the work of Piaget (1963) who says that certain thinking skills need to mature first before learning certain aspects of the language takes place. He defined four stages: the stage of sensory-motor intelligence (ages 0-2 years);[9] the stage of pre-operational thought (ages 2-7 years);[10] the stage of concrete operations (ages 7-11 years);[11] and the stage of formal operations (ages 11-15 years).[12] Finally came the social-interactionist theory to emphasize the role of interaction and the adult and child relationship in learning. Here Vygotsky (1978) is well known for the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) which states that children can do a lot more with the help of a knowledgeable/skilful

[9] During this stage, behaviour is primarily motor.
[10] During this stage language develops as well as concepts.
[11] During this stage, the child is able to apply logical thought to concrete problems.
[12] During this stage, the child's cognitive structures reach their highest level of development.

adult than they can do on their own. Gradually the child leaves the adult and takes over the task by him/herself and becomes an independent learner.[13] What teachers need to do, as Cameron (2001) says, is provide tasks where there is support, as well as challenge, to encourage learners to learn and become independent learners.

Children also have certain characteristics that are widely agreed upon among educational theorists (Palim & Power, 1990; Cameron, 2001; Brewster, Ellis & Girard, 2004). For example, they get excited quickly, learn slowly and forget quickly, get bored easily, are good mimics, have a lot of physical energy, are very enthusiastic, can not use language to talk about language, and are less embarrassed than adults at talking in a new language. For these reasons, techniques such as TPR (Total Physical Response) are widely used with children.[14]

Based on the above characteristics and theories of learning, we can now move on to discuss how best to teach children. What methods are suitable? Language-centred? Learner-centred? Or learning-centred? Curtain and Dahlberg (2004), who write for children, state that children acquire language when their focus is drawn to meaning rather than grammar, a meaningful context is necessary for language acquisition to take place, and learner-centred instruction helps second language acquisition. In learner-centred and learning-centred methods the focus shifts from the language itself to the learner and the learning process, as discussed above. Learners' needs and how to help them communicate their meanings to others is the focus. Where meaning, rather than form, is paramount, learners are engaged in meaning-focused activities and tasks. Brewster, Ellis and Girard (2004) also say that teachers need to provide visual support to help children understand the meaning of the new language and they can do so through gestures, body language and pictures. Repetition also helps children learn more quickly. As children figure out and test hypotheses about how their L1 works, teachers need to let children work out grammar rules by themselves, provided that they ensure there is enough contextualized data to help them through. Children are good at guessing and teachers need to develop this skill and let them guess the meaning of words while providing them with meaningful context. Children like to

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[13] Interactionist dynamic assessment assumes that cognitive abilities are not genetically born with us but can be developed in different ways depending on the quality of interaction and instruction (Pochner & Lantolf, 2005).

[14] Learners respond to oral commands physically without being forced to speak (Asher, 1965).

talk, although they make errors; teachers need to provide opportunities for young learners to interact with each other and to tolerate their errors (House, 1997). Teachers need to provide both support and challenge; if language learning is overly guided it becomes too easy and if it is too challenging it becomes threatening. Halliwell (2000) adds that "children need to be provided with occasions in which to communicate" (2000:86).

> Through continuous exposure to language tasks, children can pick up and internalize new language items without intentionally being taught by the teacher, as they do when acquiring their first language (L1). It is therefore suggested that in the classroom children need to be provided with a breadth of indirect learning focused on making meaning. (200:86)

Activities such as games, songs, stories, role-play, projects, and group/pair work are highly recommended with children (Curtain & Pesola, 1994; Curtain & Dahlberg, 2004). Now, note that all these recommendations point to learner (weak CLT) and learning-centred methods (strong CLT) as the primary focus is on meaning, and grammar is learned implicitly through the communicative activity (see sections 2.2.2. and 2.2.3.).

As for EFL in general, there has been a turn to CLT worldwide, at least at the level of curriculum guidelines (Al-Khwaiter, 2001; Kumaravadivelu, 2006). This is also true in primary EFL (Crawford, 2001). Whether CLT is actually used in classrooms is an open question. It will help to consider this in terms of the typical components of foreign language delivery, namely curriculum goals, textbook/materials, assessment, teacher training and classroom practice. The curriculum states goals that guide the selection of textbooks/materials, whether recommended or required, the kind of assessment to measure students' progress, and the kind of teacher training programmes both pre-service and in-service with courses and seminars for providing teachers with knowledge on primary EFL methodology. And of course there is the actual classroom where all of these factors come together.

2.5 The components of FL delivery

The first component, Curriculum is a broad term defined by Yalden, (1983), Richards (2001), White (2003) and Klapper (2006) as usually specifying the aims and objectives of a course or a programme. It also specifies content that is chosen to fulfil

those aims, how the content is organized, and what kind of evaluation is set to measure whether the aims and objectives have been achieved.

Based on the curriculum goals and objectives, suitable textbook/materials are chosen. These crucial components in language programmes can be textbooks, but also institutionally prepared materials, or the teacher's own materials:

> Materials serve as the basis for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom. In the case of inexperienced teachers, materials may also serve as a form of teacher training-they provide ideas on how to plan and teach lessons as well as formats that teachers can use. (Richards, 2001:251)

Ellis (1992: 224) points that "one way of viewing language teaching materials is as devices for implementing a syllabus." Richards (2001) adds that good materials are a pre-requisite for curriculum success.

As the third component of EFL delivery, assessment complements curriculum goals and classroom delivery. It is the "measurement of the ability of a person or the quality or success of a teaching course" (Richards, Platt & Platt 1992:23). It needs to be meshed with the curriculum and textbook/materials for programme success. Nation (1996: 85) adds that assessment is a way of helping the learner make use of the course and he notes that this entails careful observation of the learner. He also points out that assessment can suggest changes to the course to reach better results.

Assessment also needs to consider who the learners are, i.e. children or adults, and their present knowledge as well as their needs and interests (Nation, 1996). According to Gipps (1994) in educational assessment, standards are set to assess pupils' performance and encourage them to think rather than simply choose from alternatives or recall information. For example, assessment can measure a pupil's performance on concrete tasks that are within the ability of the pupil. For Gipps assessment helps us find out more about the learner's progress than a mere test:

> What we need to know is that students have been taught, not the actual items in the test, but the skills and knowledge measured by the test, that is, that the students have been taught the construct, not just how to answer the items. (1994:46)

Compared to testing, assessment is more comprehensive as it may include a test, an interview, an observation, or a questionnaire to assess a student's ability. A test is given to measure the student's ability at a certain time but assessment is on going throughout the year. But the aim of both is to find out how well a student is doing, or whether a certain method or technique is working, or how a course can be made to help the student do better. Savignon (1997) defines a test by saying that:

> A test is a sample of behavior. On the basis of the observed performance elicited on a test, inferences are made a bout the more general underlying competence of an individual to perform similar or related tasks. (1997:210)

According to Brown (1987) an achievement test is related to the curriculum. It is limited to particular material covered in the curriculum within a specific time. Gipps further points out that achievement tests measure students' abilities to remember and apply information that is learnt routinely. She believes that tests should measure understanding by asking students to use the knowledge they have instead of just recall it. For example, tests should ask students to use the knowledge they have to solve a new problem or to apply their knowledge in a new context other than the one they are familiar with (Gipps, 1994:46). An issue that Nation (1996) presents is how much the form of the questions on an achievement test should match the type of activities done in the classroom. The argument according to Gipps is for a slightly different way of asking the questions based on the need to help learners to transfer what they have learned to new situations.

Writing on young learners, Cameron (2001) points out that, instead of the teaching and learning needs dictating the form of assessment, it is often unfortunately the other way round. Assessment can control what to teach and how to teach it, where teachers end up teaching to the test. The result is that "classroom activity is restricted to test preparation" and "educational change is limited by the power of the assessment machinery" (2001:216). Still, Cameron (2001) says that assessment is necessary to provide feedback to teachers and learners that would be hard to get without it.

Teacher training programmes are the fourth component of EFL delivery. Teachers need to be prepared with the skills and knowledge that allow them to use the textbook/materials and to conduct assessment as best they can (Kreeft, 1997;

Glatthom, Jones & Bullock, 2006). Brewster, Ellis, and Girard (2004) who write about teaching children say that:

> The challenge for all primary teachers of English is to have the knowledge, skills, and sensitivities of a teacher of children and of a teacher of language and to be able to balance and combine the two successfully. (2004:269)

Other than pedagogical knowledge, teachers need to have knowledge of English and to be fluent speakers of it. The role of the university in teacher education has been discussed by, for example, Gold (1999) who talked about the importance of a theoretical background in teacher education:

> The educational impact of a university faculty on students appears to be most influential in the area of intellectual expertise where the focus on ideas and concepts about their teaching in turn increases their intellectual orientation. (1999:169)

Wise (1999) further talked about teachers' knowledge both theoretical and practical:

> One of the hallmarks of a profession is the mastery, by the practitioner, of a body of knowledge that lay persons do not possess, and autonomy in practice based upon application of this knowledge. Prospective teachers learn of knowledge and develop skills over time through a coherent program of study that includes the liberal arts, as well as professional and clinical preparation. (1999:154)

Darling-Hammond (1999) talked specifically about the kind of language specific knowledge primary grade foreign language teachers need to know and should get during their pre-service education. We can categorize this knowledge into aspects that are related to theory in general, i.e. teachers' background knowledge, such as:

1. To know about how children think and behave.
2. To understand that there are individual differences between children, e.g. style, intelligence, etc.
3. To know the role of motivation in language learning.
4. To know about different kinds of learning.
5. To know about how young learners acquire language.
6. To know about the importance of collaboration in learning.
7. To understand their subject matter thoroughly.

And those aspects that are related to teachers' practice in particular:

8. To know how to teach content using different methods depending on their pupils' level and on the needs of the lesson.
9. To construct and use different ways of assessment of pupils' knowledge.
10. To know a number of teaching strategies to deal with different styles of learning.
11. To know how to use technology in their lesson.
12. To analyze and reflect on their practice to improve their instruction.
13. To know how to manage time.

Gold (1999) adds another topic that she sees as important in language teacher education programmes: knowledge about curriculum design. It is important that teachers know about and later share in curriculum design as they are the field experts when it comes to their students and the teaching context.

As discussed above, the three components must work together towards the fulfilment of curriculum goals and objectives; the fourth component of EFL delivery. But before we look at whether those components work in harmony in a specific context, let us review the literature on CLT implementation in primary EFL contexts to find out whether those components are working together.

2.6 Studies on CLT implementation in primary EFL

In reviewing a number of studies on CLT implementation in primary EFL contexts, which will be discussed below, it seems that when it comes to actual implementation, curricula state one set of CLT aims which are either learner-centred or learning-centred but the methods supporting these principles are not always implemented in the classroom. Instead teachers use language-centred methods (see Crawford, 2001). The authors of these studies suggest various reasons for this but there are issues that are still unclear and will be discussed below.

I will discuss representative studies on CLT implementation in primary EFL that reveal common trends. Findings all point to use of language-centred methods and authors indicate as reasons for this, similar constraints on CLT implementation in countries worldwide. We can also look beyond classroom constraints for other reasons why teachers revert back to using language-centred methods when curriculum

goals set learner-centred or learning-centred communicative objectives, e.g. the student engages in conversation in order to express feelings and emotions, and exchange opinion on a variety of topics within and beyond the school setting. A number of reports in the literature deal with CLT, i.e. learner/learning-centred method, implementation in an EFL context. However, as with studies on EFL at the secondary and tertiary level, the majority of accounts have recognized the difficulties some countries face in implementing CLT.

Studies can be divided into two categories: those that were interested in teachers' practices and the kind of activities that went on in the classroom i.e. at a macro-level, and those that were interested in teacher-pupil interaction in the classroom at a micro-level. I will start by discussing those in the first category since they are more relevant to this study. Some of those studies investigated teachers' beliefs and perceptions such as Yang (2000) who wanted to investigate Taiwanese primary school English teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching. He gave a questionnaire to 68 participants in a training programme. The results of this questionnaire reveal teachers' own beliefs about learning and teaching. Results showed that 43 teachers agreed that younger is better in learning English. More than a half (62) strongly disagreed that children learn English like adults. Some (49) strongly agreed that English is learnt through interacting with other people. Others (56) strongly agreed that using English to accomplish something will help children learn. Half of the teachers agreed that the most part of teaching children English is oral communication skills, and 49 agreed that it is better to start learning English from primary. In brief, teachers' knowledge of SLA research is not quite established as, although they said children differ from adults, they believed that children learn better than adults. Still, they realize a role for speaking in learning a foreign language. And they support the argument for an early start of FL learning. Results also show teachers are in favour of CLT as they see a value for interaction and performing communicative tasks in FL learning.

Other studies tried to investigate primary students' perceptions. For example, in his master's thesis, Englezakis (1998) investigated primary students' perceptions of teaching English as a foreign language through the Communicative Approach in Cyprus and how their perceptions matched the objectives, content, and pedagogy of the New National Curriculum. Curriculum goals and objectives aim for the

implementation of CLT or learner/learning-centred methods. Englezakis sent a questionnaire to 25 primary schools (300 pupils between 9 to 12 years old) with a response rate of 76%. He also interviewed 12 primary school pupils. Results of the interview and the questionnaire summarized some of the main difficulties of implementing CLT, either learner/learning-centred method, at the primary level as pupils were not given the opportunity to practice speaking, and teachers dominate classroom talk. Also, teachers over corrected pupils' errors; lessons focused on form rather than meaning; textbook topics were boring and not entirely communicative; and finally teachers do not use authentic materials, instead relying heavily on the textbook. In this case, curriculum goals set out a learner or learning-centred method (i.e. CLT) while the methodology and the materials were language-centred and teacher-centred. In brief, the curriculum sets goals that do not map onto the methodology used, the materials or teacher training programmes, which are language and teacher-centred. As shown, both studies above reported a list of constraints based on teachers' and students' oral and written reports which, although providing useful information, need to be checked against teachers' actual practice to find out whether or not they match.

Still, other studies looked at both perceptions/beliefs and actual practice. To investigate teachers', head teachers', and students' attitudes and perceptions towards the teaching of English in preparatory schools (10-18 years old) in Qatar, Al-Khwaiter (2001) used three questionnaires distributed to 66 teachers, 32 head teachers, and 587 students. He also observed 18 teachers and interviewed 32 students and 20 teachers. Interview and observation techniques were used because a mismatch was found in a pilot study between teachers' beliefs and their actual practices in the classrooms. Al-Kuwaiter also looked at other variables such as the influence of teachers' sex, qualifications, experience, location, and nationality on their attitudes towards the teaching of English in Qatar. Findings showed that teachers' attitudes and beliefs were in conflict with their actual practice. For example, while most teachers said they favoured student-student interaction, classroom interaction was teacher dominated. There was a lot of error correction and memorization of grammar rules. He further said that teachers' beliefs and behaviours are incompatible with CLT principles due to the influence of their initial training. Teachers were observed using a lot of translation to explain vocabulary and the author said that this was one of the things that was the

result of teachers' initial training as it gave an important role to translation. Although under a CLT method teachers were required to use different techniques. Al-Khwaiter's study focuses on two important issues that are worthy of further investigation: the conflict between teachers' attitudes or beliefs and their actual practice, based on interviews and classroom observation. The other issue is the role of teacher training programmes in preparing teachers to become effective in their classrooms and work towards the fulfilment of curriculum goals.

In a study on Taiwan, Crawford (2001) wanted to investigate teachers' perceptions of the primary language programme. The new elementary school English language programme began there officially in 2001. The goals of the programme were to develop learners' aural/oral skills, to arouse interest in language learning and develop 'learning how to learn' and to help learners get to know their own and the other cultures, i.e. a learner/learning-centred method. Crawford used group conversations with 25 teachers in five elementary schools in Taipei. Interviews were tape-recorded and the data then analyzed. Crawford also used classroom observation and field notes. Crawford found some teachers felt that the communicative theories they took in their teacher education could not be applied in their classroom. They reported that it was difficult to use English extensively with young learners although Crawford said observation showed teachers made considerable use of English even in younger classes. There were constraints against CLT implementation. For example, CLT had been stated as a curriculum goal in Taiwan since 1994 but the emphasis was on exam results and reading and writing at the expense of listening and speaking. Teachers were under pressure to teach to the test. Some teachers reported that the textbooks were mechanical and repetitive with very few communicative activities. Crawford said that because of reliance on textbooks in the classrooms observed, there was little evidence of individualization where pupils were speaking as themselves and choosing what they wanted to say. Crawford adds that whole classroom interaction prevailed and pupils often responded chorally in drill-like exercises. Interaction was in a form of question and answer to display pre-learned information and there was no negotiation of meaning. Teachers worked at the sentence level, focusing a lot on vocabulary and classroom interaction was not real. In summary, Crawford found that curriculum goals state a learner/learning-centred method, whereas classroom practice as well as tests and materials show a language-centred method.

In her study on primary EFL teachers in Turkey, Kirkgoz (2006) wanted to find out how teachers teach English to young learners and how the young learners were encouraged to acquire the foreign language. She reported that English was taught as a foreign language and as a school subject and was never used outside the classroom. She further said that in Turkey the English language curriculum and syllabi for primary schools were developed by the Ministry of National Education (MNE). Kirkgoz said that the approach, as stated by the MNE, was mainly communicative and aimed to develop pupils' communicative competence in using English. To compensate for shortage of teachers trained to teach English to young learners, the MNE prepared short initial training courses for those who did not teach English before and those who were used to teaching adults. Kirkgoz's subjects were 50 primary EFL Turkish teachers, only 27 of whom were ELT graduates, the rest were from other departments. Their teaching experience ranged from two to 16 years. Kirkgoz gave a questionnaire to all 50 teachers and conducted a classroom observation on 18 teachers who volunteered to be observed. The questionnaire results showed the majority of teachers (38) taught grammar by giving a Turkish explanation, even though the MNE asked them to teach grammar through games. Achievement tests were required by the MNE and questions were mainly fill in the blanks, multiple choice, ask and answer and true or false. No oral assessment was required but teachers said they took students' participation and homework into consideration. Teachers complained about class size (40-50 pupils per class), the curriculum being too long, and not having enough time to cover the curriculum (five lessons per week 40 minutes per lesson). As for classroom observation, the results showed that 10 out of the 18 of those observed were teacher-centred in their teaching and were using GTM with young learners. Kirkgoz said that those teachers were ELT graduates but she also said that they did not receive any pre-service or in-service training on how to teach young learners and were using the methods they used with their adult learners to teach children. She concluded that although the objectives of the syllabus seemed realistic, there was a gap between the MNE objectives and actual classroom methodology. So, there is a missing link between all the four components of FL delivery, namely assessment, textbooks, teacher training and curriculum goals, which is reflected in classroom methodology.

The other group of studies on CLT were interested in teacher-pupil interaction i.e. at a micro-level. Although this study is not investigating teacher-pupil interaction as it is

interested in the methodology used at the macro-level, it would add to our knowledge to report on studies showing teachers' domination and control of classroom interaction. For example, Ackers and Hardman (2001) randomly chose 20 Kenyan primary schools out of 187 primary schools following the national curriculum. They used classroom observation (video recorded 102 lessons, length of the lesson was 30 minutes, of English, Math, and Science), discourse analysis, and time-line analysis. The average number of students was 38 per class. Most (69%) of the Kenyan teachers in the sample took two years pre-service training in teaching English as a foreign language to primary pupils. The observation tool was designed and piloted by the researchers. The focus of the observation was on the technique question-answer-feedback. For discourse analysis, 24 lessons were analyzed. Results showed that teachers dominate: they asked all the questions and pupils answered in response to those questions and teachers gave feedback. Teachers' questions focused on testing pupils' knowledge and understanding of the language. Overall, whole classroom interaction dominated. There were few instances where pupils engaged in pair and group work activities. Teachers transmitted facts to the pupils, initiated all discourse and topics, and responded to pupils' answers by evaluating them rather than creating a discourse to prompt pupils to talk. No pupil-pupil interaction was seen and pupils were dependent on the teacher to provide them with the information. The researchers concluded that teaching is "transmissional". The method teachers used was lecturing through a question and answer technique. Reasons, as suggested by Ackers and Hardman were inadequate teacher training programmes, large size classes, pressure to prepare students to pass the Kenyan Certificate of Primary Education exams, and pressure to cover the syllabus in a short time. Ackers and Hardman said that all those reasons forced teachers to shift to a methodology that would give them dominance and control over their classrooms. Again, training and assessment do not match with curriculum goals which resulted in method not being implemented.

In another study, Al-Haji (2004) wanted to investigate teacher-pupil interaction in grade one EFL primary classrooms in Kuwait. She also looked at the syllabus used, the Emirates textbook/materials, to see whether it was suitable for use in Kuwait. She used classroom observation and textbook evaluation to collect her data as well as a questionnaire and an interview for teachers and students. She visited six schools from one educational zone: Hawalli. Findings showed that classrooms were teacher-

centred. Data analysis showed that students did not initiate any exchanges at all. Results also showed that when students initiated it was in Arabic and related to lesson procedure. Another finding of her study was that the Emirates syllabus was not suitable for EFL primary classrooms in Kuwait as it did not allow opportunities for teacher-pupil interaction in English and did not contain tasks and activities that were learner-centred. One of her recommendations was that function and grammar should be taught together where function was used to teach grammar communicatively. She further recommended that teachers should be more learner-centred by reducing their talking time to allow pupils more time to talk. So, textbook/materials do not match with curriculum goals and teacher training; the link is missing again resulting in a completely different method than proposed by the National Curriculum goals. To sum up, the studies above, although they used classroom observation, did not cross reference it with all the other components of FL delivery, such as assessment and teacher training, and they also did not look at them all at the same point in time. They were not intended to answer the question of whether the components are working together towards the fulfilment of curriculum goals. They simply looked at how classroom practice matches with the method proposed by the national curriculum.

In a recent study, Al-Mutawa (2003) tried to find out about teachers' perceived difficulties in implementing Communicative Language Teaching (strong CLT) in Kuwait. To achieve this objective, a questionnaire was conducted with a sample of 440 EFL teachers in primary and secondary state schools in Kuwait. The findings of the study revealed general dissatisfaction with CLT implementation in class. Teachers reported large class size and not having enough time to evaluate pupils' performance in listening and speaking as constraints to CLT implementation. They reported pupils' low English proficiency, lack of suitable CLT texts and lack of oral CLT tests as further constraints on CLT implementation. Other teachers reported that CLT neglect of grammar will result in a breakdown in communication. A large number of ELT teachers (74%) admitted their ignorance of CLT and said that the reason was lack of in-service training in CLT (strong CLT). Many teachers avoided using CLT because oral competency was not part of the English exam which focuses mainly on grammar and vocabulary. The study concluded that the majority of teachers are dissatisfied with CLT implementation in class. So, textbooks, assessment and in-service teacher training, as teachers report, are not working together towards curriculum goals that

adopt a strong CLT approach. I would like to note that this study was one of the incentives behind introducing weak CLT or a learner-centred method in Kuwaiti classrooms.

It is important to note that the number of empirical studies that looked at CLT implementation in primary grade were not many compared to those done on secondary and higher education. However, because these studies are crucial to the present study, as they investigate CLT implementation and teachers' knowledge and beliefs and also report similar findings to the studies above, the author sees it as convenient to report briefly on those other studies in a general sense in order to cover a wide area of research in the investigation of CLT, and to give the reader a sense of the current situation. These studies took place in different countries including, Morroco (Nolasco & Arthur, 1986), England (Mitchell, 1988), Japan (Browne & Wada, 1998; Menking, 2001), Thailand (Stroupe, Show, Clayton & Carley, 1998), China (Gebhard, 1999; Zhenhui, 2002; Ou, 2004) and Korea (Li, 2001) and used surveys, questionnaires and interviews, and reported that some of the constraints teachers faced were discrete-point, form-focused exams; no testing of oral skills; textbooks emphasizing grammar, reading and writing with little emphasis on speaking; time pressure to cover the curriculum; large class size; lack of authentic materials; no use of English outside the classroom; students using their L1 when working in pairs; and lack of communicative tests. Not only researchers but also educationalists (e.g. Sahmim, 1996; Tudor, 1996; Hui, 1997; Brown, 2000; Bachrudin, 2001; Sakura, 2001; Guangwei, 2002; Gupta, 2004; Liao, 2004) wrote reports stating similar constraints. All these constraints can be grouped under classroom constraints.

Other constraints can be described as top-down constraints for example Zhang (1997) used a questionnaire, classroom observation and an interview and found that one of the difficulties of adopting CLT was that Chinese teachers were told what to do by educational administrators who inhibit them from actively adopting new ideas and effectively implementing them in their classrooms. And in an article, Lo Castro (1996) reported that Japanese teachers were not consulted during planning of the new curriculum.

Still, other constraints are socio-cultural. For example, Blanche (2002) in Japan (and all of the studies above) who used classroom observation found that classrooms were teacher-centred. And educationalists (Cortazzi, & Jin, 1996; Brown, 2000; Yu, 2001) argued that one of the main constraints against CLT implementation was culture, where teachers were viewed by students, parents and society as knowledge holders. This explains teacher-centred classrooms where teachers always provide knowledge and students are passive waiting for the teacher to give it to them.

Constraints can also relate to teachers' beliefs. Studies in Greece (Karavas-Doukas, 1996), in Australia (Sato & Kleinssaser 1999), and in Japan (Sakui, 2002) using interviews, classroom observation, questionnaires and surveys reported that teachers although were in favour of CLT, they did not implement it in their classrooms. Gorsuch (2001) reported from a questionnaire that Japanese high school teachers preferred ALM and controlled practice to CLT. And Al-Mutawa's study (2003) above showed primary and secondary English teachers were dissatisfied with CLT implementation in class. Overall, classroom observation was not used in many of the studies above. Also most of those studies tried to find out about teachers' practice by investigating their beliefs and perceptions. To find out about teachers' practices one needs to observe, as this is the only way to accurately find out.

The review of these studies suggests that curriculum goals state a learner or learning-centred method while actual classroom practice as well as the textbook/materials, teacher training programmes, and the testing system implement a language and teacher-centred method. This is seen in all the studies above. Curriculum goals, as the initial component of EFL delivery, does not map onto the other components of EFL delivery, namely textbook/materials, assessment, and teacher training programmes. The result is an alternative traditional method used in the classroom that is language and teacher-centred. Curriculum goals aiming for communicative competence are not fulfilled and the end result is that students are not able to use the language fluently to communicate outside the classroom. The main purpose of this thesis is to find out whether the same situation that is seen in the studies reviewed on EFL countries worldwide applies to Kuwait where the components of FL delivery, namely curriculum goals, textbook/materials, assessment, and teacher training programmes are planned by one authority: the Ministry of Education. If we examine all the

components at one point in time, we can more clearly see why the components might not work to fulfil curriculum goals.

2.7 Kuwait as a case study of CLT implementation in primary EFL

Kuwait, as with many other countries, realized the importance of introducing English at the primary stage for a number of reasons. Firstly, to give pupils more time to learn English, i.e.12 instead of 8 years. Secondly, based on reports from a questionnaire sent to primary school principals, 93% of them reported that this step would contribute to improve students' linguistic competence in English in intermediate and secondary school (Al-Hazeem, 1993). Thirdly, English is a worldwide language that is needed for communication in most countries and some Gulf countries have already introduced English in the primary stage, e.g. United Arab Emirates started the experiment in 1987. Finally, research studies have shown that a child is able to learn more than one language beside his native language. For all the previous reasons, Kuwaiti officials saw the need to introduce English at the primary stage.

English is taught as a foreign language in Kuwait, as a subject in school for 40 minutes a day for five days a week. It is hardly used outside school or at home where the native language Arabic, is mainly used. The educational system consists of three stages: 5 years at primary school from age six; 4 years at intermediate school from age eleven; and 3 years at secondary school from age fifteen (Al-Lumae, Al-Azmi, & Al-Failakawi, 2003). In all those stages, including the primary stage, English is taught by a language teacher. Also, as will be discussed below, the curriculum, including the textbooks/materials, assessment, and teacher training programs, are planned by the Ministry of Education.

The decision to teach English at the primary stage in Kuwait went through a number of stages. It started when Kuwaiti educationalists realized that a language-centred method did not help learners to be competent in using the foreign language (Al-Mutawa, 2003). They then decided to introduce a learning-centred method into English teaching at the intermediate and secondary schools. In 1979, the Ministry of Education in Kuwait introduced a new English teaching syllabus with the goal of developing students' communicative competence (Ioup, 1985; Ministry of Education

Document, 2000). In that year the Ministry of Education introduced a new series called *Crescent English Course* for secondary school in co-operation with Oxford University Press. The aim was to develop learners' communicative competence in English by using communicative activities through group/pair work interaction. But this innovation was not successful, as reported by Al-Mutawa (2000). The learning-centred method was not fully implemented, for which she listed a number of reasons: teaching was form-focused, teacher-centred, exam-oriented and exams were language-centred. Teachers were not adequately prepared and the four skills were not all equally emphasized.

In April 1993, the Kuwait Ministry of Education made the decision to teach English at the primary stage and it was to take effect from September 1993 (Al-Mutawa & Al-Dabbous, 1997). Because of shortage of time between taking the decision and executing it, the Ministry of Education (MOE) decided to use the Emirates textbooks. The Ministry of Education sent a Kuwaiti team of officials to the United Arab Emirates to find out how English was taught to first grade primary schools there. Based on this visit, Kuwaiti officials at the Ministry of Education decided to use the Emirates textbook *English for the Emirates* and materials for primary grade one in Kuwait.[15] A training program for primary grade one English teachers was set to prepare teachers for teaching primary grade one pupils and for using the Emirates textbooks.

Later on Kuwaiti officials realized that they could not depend on the Emirates textbooks forever, especially as it reflects the Emirates culture. They needed a textbook that reflected Kuwait's culture. Also, as seen from the approach underpinning the textbook/materials, it was mainly using structural methods such as Grammar-Translation, Situational Language Teaching, and the Direct Method, and focusing on explicit teaching of grammar and functions. Also, there were some

[15]The Emirates textbook *English for the Emirates* is described by its authors Aljazar, Noamani, Al-Zubi, Hussain, and Al-Bahrani as combining the insights of the communicative approach with the explicit teaching of functions and structures. The Emirates textbook uses an eclectic approach taking practices from a variety of sources (structural, the direct method, grammar/translation, situational, and social-inter-actionist approaches). The learning theory is parallel distributed processing (PDP) which states that learners learn best when they receive their learning input through many different channels such as, visual, audio, kinesthetic and constructural modes such as, pictures, realia, dialogues, songs, role-play and problem solving activities which have been retained in the Kuwaiti textbooks.

problems with the textbook, as reported in the Ministry of Education report (1994); the book does not cater to pupils' cognitive development, i.e. exercises were too simple, too form-focused, and very much controlled.

For all of the above reasons Kuwait decided to have a new textbook written. The method used is described in the *Teacher's Guide* as an

> integrated approach which has been adopted in this course [and it] presents grammatical and functional models for learners. It enables the immediate use of language for communication whilst at the same time encouraging the learners' awareness of the accurate use of language structures. (Hancock, 2005: xii)

The *Teacher's Guide* adopts a learner-centred method, i.e. weak CLT, where emphasis is put on teaching linguistic structures as well as communicative functions to help students become linguistically accurate and communicatively fluent. So, the local committee at the Ministry of Education put forth a plan for producing local English textbooks in cooperation with foreign publishers. The committee members were chosen from Kuwait University, the College of Basic Education, the English Inspectorate, head teachers, and assistant principals at the Ministry of Education. The committee's duties were to set the general and specific objectives for teaching English at the primary stage as well as other stages and to write the syllabus for grades one to twelve. In August 2000, the Ministry of Education signed a contract with Longman to produce primary textbooks for Kuwait. Two teams shared the process, the first team was the foreign writers from Longman, and the second team, the local committee, was from the Ministry of Education to revise, follow, and supervise the project (Ministry of Education Document, 1994). As discussed above Kuwait realized that a structural approach would produce learners who can not communicate fluently. Kuwait tried to adopt a communicative approach, strong CLT, in 1979, but implementation failed and teachers reverted to traditional form-focused instruction. Al-Mutawa said that it was because of form-focused exams and inadequate training. Then in 2003, Kuwait tried to integrate a focus on language functions with a focus on forms to achieve both fluency and accuracy. This raises the question of whether it has been implemented as planned. Teachers can now focus on forms but also provide pupils with communicative activities where they can use these forms while primarily focusing on meaning to develop pupils' fluency and accuracy.

2.8 Conclusion

Although the above literature review has highlighted the principal difficulties faced by EFL teachers trying to implement learner/learning-centred methods in their classrooms worldwide particularly at the primary level (e.g. Crawford, 2001) some of those difficulties are related to the main components of FLT namely, textbooks/materials, assessment, and teacher training (as teachers list them). The literature review has shown that the number of empirical studies done on primary grade pupils were not many compared to those carried out on secondary schools, and according to Rixon (2000), teaching English to young learners started in many countries in the 1980s, and some countries, such as Kuwait, in 1990s. We also need more research to investigate what goes on in classrooms. How can we discuss teachers' methodology without classroom observation? Watching teachers actually teach, observing how they use the materials, interact with their pupils, and make quick decisions adds to our knowledge of teachers' practice. Classroom observation can reveal more about teachers' style of teaching and their deep rooted beliefs than a questionnaire or an interview can do. Teachers may say in an interview that they are not doing something, such as explaining grammar, when in fact during teaching they can be seen to be doing so.

The above studies, e.g. Crawford, 2001, have shown EFL curricula worldwide aim for learner or learning-centred methods while classroom observation has revealed teachers using primarily language-centred methods. Still, all the above studies are not conclusive as to how all the components of EFL delivery relate to one another and to the methodology used. For example, Englezakis (1998); Yang (2000) and Al-Mutawa (2003) have used only questionnaires and reported a list of constraints. Questionnaires are not enough to probe teachers' practices. To find out about what teachers do, we need to observe them. Teachers' behaviour can reveal a lot about their actual beliefs and preferred style. Although others (Ackers & Hardman, 2001; Al-Khwaiter, 2001; Crawford, 2001; Al-Haji 2004; Kirkgoz, 2006) used classroom observation and interviews, they did not consider all the components e.g. assessment or teacher training programmes. There is a need to investigate the matter more thoroughly by taking a comprehensive look not only at what teachers are doing but how that is linked to teachers' knowledge and how all are linked to the main components of FLT.

Are they working in harmony towards the fulfilment of curriculum goals? The picture will never be complete unless a study like this one is pursued, only then can we find where the missing link is. Looking at one part of the change process, classroom observation or teachers' knowledge, as the previous studies have done, means ignoring more crucial factors that might have an impact on teachers' practice.

The next several chapters, which will be devoted to Kuwait, aim to find out how the Kuwaiti curriculum goals, textbooks/materials, assessment and teacher training programmes, as well as teacher knowledge and teacher practice map onto one another.

Therefore, the present study intends to answer the following questions

1. How do the components of FL delivery work together and towards the fulfilment of National Curriculum goals, which specify a CLT-based learner-centred method?
2. Are teachers implementing a CLT-based learner-centred method?
3. Do teachers' beliefs and knowledge map onto their practice and to the other components of FL delivery?
4. Do teachers' perceptions of their own practice match up with their actual practice?

Teachers, as will be discussed in Chapter Four, are categorized according to their Educational background and according to their experience. The importance of pre-service and in-service training in teachers' professional development is well documented in the literature (Gower & Walters, 1983; Thompson, 1998; Darling-Hammond, 1999; Ducharme, 1999; Gold, 1999; Darling-Hammond & Hammerness, 2005). The literature also places more importance and weight on experienced teachers over novice teachers (Hughes, 2001; Castejon & Martinez, 2001; Hogan, Rabinowitz, & Craven, 2003). Based on what the literature suggests, it is hypothesized that

1. Teachers with an Educational background will be more learner-centred than those with no Educational background.
2. Teachers with more experience will be more learner-centred than those with less.

Kuwaiti curriculum goals, textbook/materials, assessment, and teacher training programmes will be examined and discussed in the next chapter to find out to what extent they map on to one another and to curriculum goals. Unlike the studies above, this chapter will look at all those factors at one point in time and discuss them in detail as they are an integral part of primary FLT delivery. While the studies mentioned above listed these things as reasons behind teachers reverting back to language-centred methods, they did not examine all in detail.

Chapter Three
The Primary EFL Curriculum, textbook/ materials, assessment, and teacher training programs in Kuwait

3.0 Introduction

This chapter looks at what underpins primary EFL in Kuwait. It starts by discussing the theory behind curriculum design in general to show the steps that should be followed when planning any curriculum. This is followed by a discussion of Kuwait's existing EFL National Primary Curriculum. The aim here is to explore the EFL primary curriculum in Kuwait in relation to integration of the four main elements in curriculum design: curriculum goals and course objectives; textbook and materials; assessment; and teacher training programs. Textbook and materials are discussed to examine how they deliver the curriculum. We then turn to assessment and look at how it relates to the Kuwaiti curriculum goals, course objectives, and the textbook and materials. Finally, expected teacher knowledge and skills in terms of pre-service and in-service training programmes are discussed to find out how teachers are prepared for implementing the curriculum; using the materials/text; and assessing students. The aim of the whole discussion is therefore to find out how, on paper, these components function together. However, before discussing any of these components in detail, we will discuss how a curriculum is designed as well as what issues are involved in designing a curriculum.

3.1 Curriculum design

The term 'curriculum' has been broadly defined by various authors (Yalden, 1983; Richards, 2001; Klapper, 2006) where it is typically said to state the aims and objectives that a course or programme seeks to achieve. A curriculum specifies content that is chosen to fulfil those aims; how the content organized; and what kind of evaluation is set to measure whether such aims and objectives have been achieved. There are practical and theoretical considerations that can affect the actual process of curriculum design. According to Nation (1996), the practical factors are related to the learners' knowledge, the resources available, teachers' skills and the course designer's skills. The theoretical considerations are the principles of teaching and learning.

These sets of factors will ultimately affect the suitability of a curriculum to the learners in a particular country. Nation includes the need to consider the environment before designing a specific curriculum, where environmental analysis covers three important factors: the teachers, the learners, and the situation. Here there is a need to find out how well trained or how skilful the teachers are, or need to be, in order to be able to carry out the demands of a given curriculum. This is particularly important in terms of implementing a new methodology (Brewster, Ellis & Girard, 2004). How fluent teachers are in English (see Chapter Two for the definition of fluency used in this study) as well as whether they have time to implement a new curriculum, or are overloaded with preparing lessons and preparing and correcting exams, are prime considerations. The learners are the second consideration. We need to know their age in order to design appropriate materials and choose interesting topics; we need to know what they already know; and finally, we need to find out their reasons for learning the FL. The final factor is the situation or actual environment. We need to find out if classrooms are suitable for activities such as group work. We need to consider the time available. We need to know what resources are available such as tape recorders, video/DVD players and textbooks (Brewster, Ellis & Girard, 2004).

Actual curriculum design involves a 'needs analysis' to explore all these factors, particularly those involving learners (see e.g. Brown, 1995; Richards, 2001). Nation says that a needs analysis helps in preparing relevant and useful materials. A further point to consider in curriculum design is the principles of teaching and learning in terms of research done on language learning and teaching:

> It is very important that curriculum design makes the connection between the research and theory of language learning and the practice of designing lessons and courses. There is a tendency for this connection not to be made, with the result that curriculum design and therefore learners do not benefit from developments in knowledge gained from research. (Nation, 1996: 6)

Having discussed what issues need to be considered when designing a curriculum, we will now look at the Kuwaiti primary EFL curriculum to find out whether it has considered the issues discussed above.

3.2 The primary EFL curriculum in Kuwait

The decision in Kuwait to abandon the Emirates textbook, which had been in use up until then, came as a result of a number of reasons (as discussed in Chapter Two) including the realization that achievement in English was below "average" (44.8%).[1] Kuwait decided to write its own textbook and, based on an executive summary of the Educational Indicators and National Capacity Building Project,[2] the Higher Committee at the Ministry of Education produced a new curriculum document to match the textbook (Kuwait Ministry of Education Document, 2000-2001). The initial new Curriculum Document (2005) stated the same goals as the old Document but it made some modifications as to set standards, benchmarks, competencies, and objectives for the primary stage as well as other stages.

The Kuwaiti EFL curriculum is still being developed to include high long-term attainment, nonetheless there are certain observations that can still be made this much can now be stated. First, the main goal of the curriculum from grades one to grade twelve (from six to eighteen years old) is the development of the learner's linguistic and communicative competence in terms of both accuracy and fluency. The Document starts with a vision statement which states

> that students are provided with the opportunities and resources to help them achieve a high level of both fluency and accuracy in using English to meet life challenges with a wider cultural and cross-cultural outlook, taking into account the learner's abilities, needs, interests and tendencies (*Curriculum Document*, 2005:6).

The addition of accuracy in the new curriculum was in response to general criticism made by educationalists, applied linguists, and teachers (Widdowson, 1990; Kumaravadivelu, 2006) that CLT does not pay enough attention to forms. The Kuwaiti Curriculum uses what they refer to as an 'integrated approach' which is weak CLT or a learner-centred method, integrating a focus on linguistic structures and communicative functions. It integrates the four skills, as stated in its mission:

> To emphasize an approach to syllabus design which integrates the four language skills in order for students to communicate effectively and accurately in English. (*Curriculum Document*, 2005:6)

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[1]These statistics came from stratified multistage random sampling of 1,819 Kuwaiti primary grade pupils at the end of their primary stage (around 10 years old). Six tests for the assessment of learning achievement were constructed in different subjects, including English.

[2] 'Key Performance Indicators in Kuwait's Primary Schools', published in October 1998.

In more detail, the Kuwaiti *Curriculum Document* states as its mission a desire to accomplish the following: (1) to use an approach which integrates the four skills for effective and accurate communication; (this can be seen as being in accordance with natural communication where the four skills are drawn on (see e.g. Klapper, 2006); (2) to build positive attitudes towards English, using it with confidence (this can be seen to be in accordance with focusing on learners' needs and interests); (3) to build linguistic competence to help learners pursue higher education (this can be seen to be related to the CLT principle where grammatical competence is one of the foci); (4) to foster pride in Islam and patriotism to Kuwait, as well as acceptance of other cultures; (5) to develop the willingness to learn autonomously and to communicate with different people (this applies to the role of the learner under a CLT approach where s/he is seen as an active constructor of meaning rather than a passive recipient of information and reflects learner-centeredness (Kumaravadivelu, 2006).

I will now give a brief description of the *Curriculum Document* in relation to how it is organized. It starts by giving the rationale for using the various standards in the Ministry of Education in Kuwait. It goes on to state how the standards are organized. It uses five strands of standards: listening, speaking, reading, writing, and culture, and gives a rationale for each. Next there is its vision statement and its mission statement (see above). We are then given its content standards (for grades 1-12) for listening, speaking, reading, writing and culture with a rationale statement for each. This is followed by a discussion of curriculum outcomes, including proficiency goals, cognitive goals, affective goals, and transfer goals. The document then states the benchmark standards for the primary stage (grades 1-5). Finally, we are given competencies and objectives, but only for primary grade 1 as the document is still being written; I was told by the Head of the Committee that competencies and objectives don't exist for all levels. Although the primary EFL curriculum is still under revision, the standards (for all stages), benchmarks (for the primary stage), competencies (for primary 1), and objectives (for primary 1) have been decided on, as shown here. I will start to discuss the goals of teaching English at the primary stage as they are more general and we need to know the goals before discussing the document in detail. Accordingly, the next section will be devoted to a discussion of the goals of teaching English at the primary stage according to the Ministry of Education Document (2006/2007).

3.2.1 Goals of teaching English at the primary stage

The goals of English instruction for all grade levels provide a framework for curriculum development and for teachers to make judgments about student progress. According to the goals and objectives document obtained from the English Inspectorate at the Ministry of Education (2006/2007). These goals are set

> To develop the students' cognitive, affective and psychomotor experiences through four language skills in order to continue the process of building up the student's linguistic competence in order to qualify him/her to pursue his/her higher education (2006/7:1).

The following are taken from the *Goals and Objectives Document*:

Proficiency Goals

These goals are general and apply to all levels. They are directed to each of the four language skills. Because the list is long, I will give examples of each.

Listening skills where the student:

- Recognizes the English phonemes receptively.
- Understands and follows what s/he listens to (live or taped), etc.

Speaking skills where the student:

- Speaks correct English in terms of pronunciation and grammar
- Expresses his/her ideas and feelings orally, etc.

Reading skills where the student:

- Reads aloud correctly in terms of pronunciation, stress, intonation and punctuation
- Develops the skill of silent reading, etc.

Writing skills where the student:

- Writes correct and meaningful sentences in terms of grammar and punctuation.
- Writes simple sentences to describe objects and people, etc.

Cognitive Goals:

These include the mastery of linguistic knowledge as well as cultural knowledge. It comprises several areas of intellectual ability where the student:

- Produces correct utterances based on auditory stimuli.
- Presents ideas and information orally and in writing.
- Identifies and applies some rules of word formation.
- Detects and corrects salient grammatical mistakes.
- Identifies the meaning of some words through contextualization, etc.

Affective Goals:

This comprises achieving positive attitudes, values and principles, where the student:

- Appreciates the values and teaching of Islam.
- Develops a sense of belonging to Kuwait.
- Shows respect for his/her heritage.
- Has pride in the Arab culture.
- Develops a positive attitude towards learning English and other subjects, etc.

Transfer Goals

Here 'transfer' means the carrying over of behaviour learned in one learning situation to another, where the student:

- Uses the knowledge of English skills within the school environment and in real life situations.
- Applies English language skills to other school subjects (cross curricular links)
- Attempts to explore other sources of learning.
- Transfers thinking skills from the target language to other fields of knowledge, etc.

These goals are then followed by performance objectives to specify what is expected of a given group of students for every grade level. Richards (2001) emphasizes the role of performance objectives in specifying what is expected of learners in terms of behaviour in a specific programme to help teachers in their planning. Here it is important to note that Kuwait differs from many other countries in that it has a single textbook with a teacher's guide for every grade level. In other countries the curriculum, assessment guidelines, and teacher training programmes may be centrally planned, but in Kuwait the textbook and materials are also directed by the Ministry of Education. This makes it possible to integrate all components of EFL delivery. Now that we know what the goals are for primary EFL, we can discuss the *Curriculum Document* in more detail to find out how it sets the standards and benchmarks for this stage.

3.2.2 Standards and benchmarks

The new EFL *National Curriculum* (2005) for the primary stage provides standards and benchmarks. Standards set the criteria of what is expected of pupils at the end of the final secondary grade, i.e. grade twelve, for every one of the 4 skills, as well as culture. For example, the standard for listening (where '1' refers to standard '1' which is listening) is:

> **Standard 1**: The student listens effectively and critically to oral communication in situations which serve different purposes and involve a variety of speakers. (2005:12)

Benchmarks are laid out for each grade. Here the second number refers to benchmark, so 'Benchmark 1.4' refers to listening for grade 4. It describes what pupils should be able to do for listening:

> **Benchmark 1.4** (listening for grade 4): the student can recognize common expressions, comprehend and identify information in a listened-to-text. (2005:12)

The *New Curriculum Document* is less vague and thus an improvement because it now sets benchmarks which specify what is expected of students for each skill, as well as for culture. The benchmarks for the primary stage move from simple sub-skills to more complex ones and are sub-numbered accordingly, as shown on p.52. In addition, the standards for all stages mention top-down higher-order thinking skills, e.g. listen effectively and critically, as this is what is expected of pupils when they graduate, while the benchmarks for primary level mention bottom-up skills; what "students are expected to know and be able to do at the end of each of the benchmark grade levels, in this document, grades 5, 9 and 12" (*Curriculum Document*, 2005:2), e.g. recognize, comprehend, and identify. This is expected, as pupils at the primary stage are still developing cognitively, but by the end of grade twelve they will have developed their critical thinking, as stated in the *Curriculum Document*. Each benchmark is then accompanied by a number of competencies (for primary grade 1, see below) that refer to specific behaviours that are actually taught. For example, for benchmark 1.4 one of the competencies is:

Competency 1.4.1: identify words and simple sentences. (2005:18)

where the final number refers to competency 1. These are further followed by a set of objectives, below given for primary grade 1, that specify in detail the kind of activities used under that competency. For competency 1.4.1 the following objectives are set, where the final number refers to the number of objectives. It is important to note that competencies and objectives in this curriculum document apply only to grade 1 pupils. I was told that the document was still under revision:

Objective 1.4.1.1: identify colours.
Objective 1.4.1.2: listen to a short dialogue.
Objective 1.4.1.3: listen to a story.
Objective 1.4.1.4: put events in sequence. (2005:18)

3.3 Teacher's Guide

A *Teacher's Guide* accompanies the Kuwaiti textbook, which includes learning objectives (see below Table 3.2) which refer to the curriculum. The objectives for Grade 4, as that is our concern here, can be categorized as those that focus on form and those that focus on communication. This thus reflects the intended integrated approach, i.e. a

learner-centred approach, where linguistic structures and communicative functions are integrated to achieve accuracy and fluency. By the end of grade 4 pupils should be able to:

Form-focused objectives:

1. Understand and respond to instructions and questions
2. Read, understand, repeat, and act out texts recorded by native speakers
3. Write sentences in cursive.
4. Provide detailed information about themselves.

Communicative/functional objectives:

5. Express their opinions about themselves and the different topics in the course using the present, past, and future tenses.
6. Read, understand, and discuss longer texts.
7. Give simple reasons for their opinions.
8. Have confidence to discuss cross-curricular issues. (*Teacher's Guide*, 2005:i)

While the primary EFL curriculum states as its goal to develop the students' linguistic, as well as communicative, competence, and to develop students' basic skills in listening, speaking, reading, and writing, it also states the need for students to learn about their own culture and the target culture. This is included under 'culture' in the *Curriculum Document*, but no reference is made to the target culture in the *Teacher's Guide* or in the textbook. This will be discussed further below.

3.4 Textbooks and materials

We now turn to the textbook and materials used in Kuwait. First I will briefly introduce the role of textbook and materials in general. Then, after describing the Kuwaiti textbook and materials in detail, an analysis of their content will follow to find out how the content works towards the fulfilment of the curriculum components mentioned thus far.

Textbooks and teaching materials are key components in language programmes. Whether the teacher uses a textbook, institutionally prepared materials, or his/her own materials, these "generally serve as the basis for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom" (Richards, 2001:251). What role do textbooks and materials play in language learning/teaching, particularly in delivering a

curriculum? Richards (2001) says that careful selection of the right textbook and materials is a pre-requisite for fulfilment of curriculum goals.

When the role of materials in delivering a curriculum is discussed in the literature on CLT, the focus is generally on their selection and evaluation. Ellis (1984, 1992), for example, talks about guidelines for choosing materials for fluency work. Cunningsworth (1984), Sheldon (1988), and Savignon (1997) provide a check list for evaluating textbooks, and Richards (2001) talks about the role and design of instructional materials and how to evaluate them. Brewster, Ellis, and Girard (2002) believe that the aims of the course book should complement the aims of the course. Richards (2001) further talks about the role of materials in delivering a curriculum by saying that materials provide the syllabus for a programme and help unify instruction, i.e. when all pupils learn and are tested in the same material. With carefully developed materials, as Richards says, what pupils are presented with is built on sound learning theory, and information is presented at a suitable pace. Materials also provide pupils with a variety of learning resources to choose from, for example, and particularly at primary level, those which are visually attractive. Prepared materials save the teacher's time which can then be used in planning and conducting the lesson. For non-native speaking teachers, materials also provide accurate models of the target language. Cunningsworth (1995) points out that materials can be a source of both spoken and written input. They also provide students with activities to practice the forms as well as to communicate meaningfully. Materials also serve as a reference for students on grammar, vocabulary, functions, etc. Finally, materials play an important role when teachers have limited teaching experience; they can serve as a sort of training, or at least a substitute for training.

> In the case of inexperienced teachers, materials may also serve as a form of teacher training- they provide ideas on how to plan and teach lessons as well as formats that teachers can use. (Richards, 2001:251)

Now let us take a critical look at the textbook and materials the Ministry of Education has chosen for teachers to use.

3.5 The Kuwaiti primary EFL textbook and materials

Textbooks and materials are prescribed by the Ministry of Education; teachers have no voice in their selection, unlike many other EFL countries where teachers are able to make a choice, e.g. Taiwan. As noted earlier, *Fun with English* is replacing the Emirates

Textbook based on criticism that it was overly form-focused and did not develop students' communicative competence. The new curriculum came to focus on both linguistic form and communicative function. Every year one level or grade of the new textbook is being introduced in schools. So far, four have been introduced, and these include the level this thesis focuses on; grade 4. During my field work the Higher Committee of English Language for the Ministry of Education was supervising the production of the grade 5 textbook.[3]

In general, *Fun with English* follows a structures and notions/functions syllabus where grammar is the core of the syllabus and is taught in stages and all notions/functions revolve around this grammar core (see Chapter Two). Structures, notions/functions and vocabulary are presented in the context of meaningful topics. Different topics give context and meaning to activities in the workbook that accompanies the textbook and help to introduce structures and notions/functions in a meaningful context. For grade 4, *Fun with English* has lots of pictures, songs, and linguistic language games. The book also recycles language forms (Nation, 1996). For example, it revises the present simple introduced in grade one. Here the technique specified by the text is one where the teacher presents the form in a sentence with a picture and pupils repeat and practice the form. Activities are graded from simple, controlled activities to more guided ones. For example, the workbook that accompanies the textbook starts with an activity where pupils match simple phrases that they have practiced during their reading. In the unit called 'Meet my family' pupils practice reading the phrases 'it's nice to meet you' and 'it's nice to meet you, too'. Then the same characters are introduced in the exercise using the same words. This ends with an activity where students have to order jumbled sentences to make a story. Activities vary, e.g. read and answer, ask and answer, listen and point, match, and reorder sentences, and learners have the chance to develop further basic skills.

Activities in the textbook are, as will be shown below, mainly form-focused, with the purpose of helping pupils master accuracy in the target language. As discussed in Chapter Two, language learning in learner-centred methods is intentional. Although the Kuwaiti curriculum goals state linguistic as well as communicative competence as the main goals,

[3] This is a local committee consisting of doctors in education, and supervisors of English at the Ministry of Education (The Committee meets on weekly basis to revise and make recommendations about the textbooks). A representative from Longman's attends all meetings to take notes of the committee's recommendations about the textbook and sends them back to Longman.

the exercises in the textbook are controlled and do not allow pupils to choose what to say or when to say it. Still, there are also meaningful activities such as songs, stories, linguistic games and puzzles (see appendix 2). Here, all four skills are integrated.

Let us now look more closely at all the materials, including *Fun with English*, to see how the curriculum is realized in terms of the topics and objectives. Here we now focus entirely on fourth grade (between 9-10 years old). Fourth grade was chosen for this thesis for two reasons: First, fourth grade pupils will have learned English for three years and will have developed some linguistic background that enables them to engage in communicative activities. Second, primary fifth grade pupils were still using the old textbook *English for the Emirates* when this study was conducted.

The primary fourth grade pupil's book has 16 main units and 4 revision units. There are two books for the two terms, grade 4A and grade 4B. Sixteen topics are shown here with eight topics for each book along with two revision units after every four units). There is also a section at the end of each textbook called 'My Stories' where there are eight stories, four in each textbook, which develop themes from the main units. Table 3.1 lists the topics as well as the structures, and functions reviewed and introduced.

Table 3.1 Content of *Fun with English* Grade 4- books 4A and 4 B (for each term)

Topics	Structures	Functions
1.Meet my family 2. My healthy day 3. A new baby 4. The celebration 5. Clever bees 6. The fastest bird 7. A visit to Green Island 8. The football match 9. The Planetarium 10. A visit to the moon 11. I'm planting a tree 12. The Nature Park 13. Making flags 14. The car race 15. A day in the mountains 16. A holiday in Lebanon 17. My stories	Present simple, like +ing, Wh-questions, going to for future plans, present continuous, was/were born, have got, past simple, this/these, possessive apostrophe, superlatives, comparatives, can/can't, must/mustn't, prepositions of movement, past continuous, past continuous interrupted by past simple, pronoun 'it', It takes..to, Is there/are there in questions with countable/uncountable nouns, some/any, with positive/negative answers, need/need to, its good/bad to, future with 'will', should/shouldn't, What does it look like?, it's got.., adverbs of frequency, ordinals, shall (for suggestions), pronouns: they, he, she	Greetings, polite requests, giving thanks, making suggestions, giving/asking for advice, asking people to do things, describing things, talking about giving and receiving presents, talking about likes, describing actions & processes, talking about ability, describing direction & location, expressing prohibitions & obligations, expressing concern & approval, asking for & giving information, retelling a story, talking about preferences

Some of these topics such as the 'Planetarium' and 'Nature Park' are usually also introduced to pupils in their science class in Arabic according to their primary science syllabus. Although topics vary, the target language culture is not introduced at all at this level in the textbook. The *Curriculum Document* refers to the foreign language culture in one of the benchmarks under culture

> the student is able to understand the nature of language, both foreign and mother tongue, by demonstrating knowledge and understanding of aspects of foreign cultures such as daily life, education, history, and geography (2005:25)

Communicative competence entails knowing what is appropriate in the target language culture. Not only that but children need to see the language in its real natural context to know that it is real language spoken by people and to develop positive attitudes towards the language and its people. The *Curriculum Document* mentions this in its mission

> To achieve mastery of specific language behaviours, positive attitudes and feelings about English to enable students to use English confidently and effectively (2005:6)

It would be important to introduce the target language culture (Cunningsworth, 1984; Nation, 1996; Byram, 2000), however no target language culture aspects are introduced in the textbook or the *Teacher's Guide*.

According to Table 3.1, the grade 4 textbook starts with the simple present tense followed by the simple past tense, and then it introduces the possessive ('s). The order seems to comply with Nation's (1996) suggestion that structures should be introduced in their order of acquisition according to SLA research, that is, when pupils are at the right stage to acquire them. And according to Bailey, Madden, and Krashen's (1974) study, second language learners acquire some structures later than others. For example, past tense and possessive are acquired later than both simple present and the progressive.

Additional prepared materials such as the workbook and the handwriting book provide exercises/activities to practice structures, vocabulary, the four main skills, punctuation and spelling (see appendix 3). The *Teacher's Guide* further provides help in planning lessons (see appendix 1) and cassettes, wall charts, and flashcards are used to provide further practice. Table 3.2 gives the details of the rest of the prepared materials to be used with *Fun with English*.

Table 3.2 Additional Materials

Materials	Description	Examples
1. Pupil's Workbook (4A) & (4B)	Consists of 16 main units and 4 revision units. There are exercises on every lesson in the Pupil's Book. There are two books, one for each term (4A & 4B).	Pupils do an exercise on the lesson "the planetarium" where they substitute pictures in a short paragraph with words they studied from the reading (See Appendix 3 for an example).
2. Teacher's Guide Grade (4)	Contains lesson plans and answer keys for all the exercises. It has appendices containing word lists, tests, profile sheet, [4] tapescripts, story worksheets and photocopiable pages	(See Appendix 1 for a sample lesson plan).
3. Handwriting Book Grade (4)	Pupils practice writing in cursive. They copy and trace words and short sentences.	
4. cassettes (4A) & (4B)	Two cassettes (4A) & (4B) for each term. They contain recordings of the lessons and the songs sung out by the main characters in the book.	
5. Wall charts	Eight wall charts supporting the topics in the textbook.	
6. Flashcards	72 flashcards displaying the new vocabulary.	

As is shown in the table, the Pupil's Workbook consists of two books, one for each term. It follows the same topics as in the main textbook, with more exercises/activities than only the ones provided in the main textbook, where pupils practice the structures and the vocabulary they have studied or answer questions on what they have read in the Pupil's Book. Examples, chosen as representative of the kind of exercises used, are listed in Table 3.3. Exercises are not presented in this order in the textbooks but are mixed to practice different sub-skills; below they are grouped by sub-skill.

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[4] It is made for the revision sections in the textbook. There are four revisions. For every one there are a set of objectives (criteria) where the teacher makes a check mark if the student accomplished the objective (e.g. ask and answer questions about texts). The teacher writes the name of the class at the top of the sheet. Students are referred to by numbers.

Table 3.3 Skills and type of exercises in Grade 4

No.	Language skill	Activity
1	Vocabulary	-Pupils choose the correct word from a number of choices to complete a sentence [Workbook 4B:6]. -Pupils read a short text with pictures and substitute the pictures with words [Workbook 4A:5].
2	Structure	- Pupils are provided with pictures and they have to complete sentences answering a question in the past continuous ' what were they doing when Sami scored a goal?' [Workbook 4A:24]. -Pupils match sentences with pictures to practice using 'when' with the past and past continuous [Pupil's Book 4A:37].
3	Spelling	-Pupils are provided with pictures and words missing letters. They have to fill in the missing letters and are also provided with a list of the words [Workbook 4B:9]. -Pupils fill in a cross-word puzzle with names of the main characters in the book and are provided with their pictures and an example [Workbook 4A:1].
4	Pronunciation	-Pupils listen to a list of words and write the words with the same sound together. A list of the words is also provided for them [Workbook 4A:26]. -Pupils complete pairs of words with the same sound and spelling and the list of words is provided for them [Workbook 4B:3].
5	Writing	-Pupils reorder sentences to form a story or a process and then copy the sentences [Workbook 4A:6]. -Based on a reading, pupils complete sentences to talk about what they did in the order of events to practice the past tense [Workbook 4B:5].
6	punctuation	-Pupils are provided with two sentences and are asked to put in the punctuation [Workbook 4A:11].
7	speaking	-Pupils are provided with a table with all the activities written and pictures of people doing them and they have to ask each other ' what do you like doing to keep fit?' to practice 'like- ing' [Workbook 4A:3]. -Pupils look at pictures of people doing things and have to say whether the people did/didn't do these things. The full sentences are provided but the verbs are in the present with an example to practice the past [Pupil's Book 4B:35].
8	listening	-Pupils listen to the cassette and point to a set of pictures [Pupil's Book 4B:5]. -Pupils listen to words that are written for them with their pictures and they have to sort them in a table according to whether they hear ['s' or 'z' or 'iz']endings [Workbook 4A:27].

As we have seen, although the workbook, as well as the pupil's book, introduce a number of structures and notions/functions, the exercises/activities help students practice linguistic forms more than functions/communicative acts. Most of the textbook's exercises focus mainly on forms, which are for practicing the language. For example, pupils listen to words in the plural that are written with their pictures and have to decide

whether the words ended with [s] [z] or [iz]. This is appropriate to children who are beginning to learn the language and need a lot of practice. These exercises try to put the language in context to make it meaningful and easier for young learners, e.g. students fill in letters to form words and are provided with pictures and examples to guide them through the exercises. The exercises in the textbooks, although they suit the pupils' level, do not seem to involve pupils in writing freely to express themselves. Johnstone (1994) argues that there is a need to give young learners the chance to be creative with language. Most of the exercises are either controlled or guided and do not require much thinking in doing them (see Table 3.3 above). For example, to practice vocabulary, students are provided with a short text with pictures and they have to substitute the pictures with words. Students do not need to understand the text to guess the missing words. It would take more effort and thinking to guess the word from context and this might be better in helping to remember it. There are activities to practice speaking in pairs but are made for one reason: to practice the language, as the focus is always on a specific form to be practiced, but they do not go beyond that. This represents a present/practice/produce (PPP) technique. As discussed in Chapter Two, this technique can be used in a learner-centred method or weak CLT, where the teacher presents structures and functions and then practices them with pupils who are then given opportunities to produce the same structures and functions in meaning-focused activities.

One *Teacher's Guide* covers the whole year and provides teachers with details on how to plan and conduct their lessons. It defines the current method to be used, the Kuwaiti "integrated approach", as learner-centred, saying that

> The integrated approach which has been adopted in this course presents grammatical and functional models for learners. It enables the immediate use of language for communication whilst at the same time encouraging the learners' awareness of the accurate use of language structures (2005: xii)

It gives them examples of the activities and exercises and illustrates how to focus on forms within a PPP model, it shows how to present songs and other activities, and it tells them what to do and say every step of the way. Inexperienced teachers should therefore feel safe by following the *Teacher's Guide*. For example, in unit 9, on a lesson called 'The football match', the teacher presents and practices the past continuous with pupils and the *Teacher's Guide* says:

- Ask pupils to tell you the time now. Then mime playing football and elicit: 'you're playing football'.
- Now write yesterday on the board, and the time it currently is. Mime playing football again, and say 'yesterday at (time), I was playing football.' Pupils repeat.
- Put more times on the board below and say 'at nine o'clock I was teaching. At twelve o'clock I was eating lunch. At six o'clock I was watching TV.'
- Now ask the class: 'what were you doing yesterday at nine o'clock?' Elicit an appropriate answer. (*Teacher's Guide*, grade 4, 2005:56)

The set of instructions to the teacher reflects a PPP model where the focus is on learning the structure and functions of language. The *Teacher's Guide* explains that the last P in the PPP model is free communication

> Pupils can then move on from understanding the new vocabulary in a controlled situation to practicing it in the guided activities in the book. This in turn can lead to free communication, where the pupils use the words in new contexts relevant to themselves. This is the production part of the 'Present, Practice and produce' model. (2005: xiv)

Again, as said before, learning is intentional in learner-centred methods. The *Teacher's Guide* also asks teachers during a listening comprehension activity to let their pupils listen for gist, e.g. the teacher writes a question on the board, and then she plays the cassette of a reading text or dialogue that is also in the Pupil's book to see if pupils can find the answer, as well as for specific information. Sometimes they are asked to perform things as they listen as seen in the textbook/workbook, e.g. listen and point or listen, read and match, where pupils use the vocabulary and structures they have practiced, e.g. during the reading, to do the exercises in their textbook/workbook. The *Teacher's Guide* further tells teachers to let pupils guess at words they do not know and to give pupils a go at exercises and activities before the teacher does it with them as a whole class. The idea is that this helps pupils learn to become independent in their learning and helps to make teaching learner-centred as one of the principles of a communicative approach.

Listening and speaking, based on the textbook and the workbook, are integrated with the skills of reading and writing. Pupils are exposed to graded English listening texts by native speakers of the target language in the form of dialogues, e.g. a visit to the moon where the main characters of the book along with a bear called 'Brainy' act out the dialogues, and songs, e.g. on a lesson about planting trees, a song called 'plant a tree' is sung by the main characters; songs come with the same theme as the lesson to help pupils practice the new vocabulary.

As for reading, pupils practice reading simple, short stories, short texts, short dialogues, and simple short songs. According to the *Teacher's Guide*, reading can be done aloud individually, in pairs, or in groups and can be done silently. The *Teacher's Guide*, although it focuses on practicing form/accuracy, it also focuses on meaning/fluency as it asks teachers to encourage pupils to act out the stories in the textbook to develop their fluency:

> Pupils can also act out the story, remembering as many of the words as they can. This brings the activity to life and really gets the pupils involved in the language and context. (2005: xv)
>
> They do not need to use the book for this and do not need to use the exact words on the page. This is a fun way of checking that they can remember and use the language. (2005: xv)

It also asks teachers to encourage pupils to read silently for gist or for specific information

> Pupils should initially read the text silently. In this way, they can absorb information at their own speed. Such independence is very important. (2005: viii)

Spelling is introduced as a list of key words to spell in the lesson box for each unit, as well as through the wall charts and flashcards. The course follows three approaches to teach spelling according to the *Teacher's Guide* (2005:ix): the whole word approach, whereby words are grouped together based on similarity, such as "wh-words", which include "which", "why" and "what"; the phonemic approach, whereby pupils are taught to understand the relationship between letters and their sounds through the many words in English that have regular letter-sound correspondence, such as the word 'cat'; and finally the morphophonemic approach, whereby pupils learn that, if a word ends with 'e' like 'take' and is combined with 'ing,' the 'e' is dropped.

Writing is practiced where pupils are expected to produce language that they have practiced in listening, speaking, and reading. According to the *Teacher's Guide* this is represented in controlled activities in the workbook and the handwriting book to help pupils produce whole words and simple sentences. By the end of the course, pupils move from controlled to guided writing. The *Handwriting Book* presents pupils with a number of controlled activities where they can practice writing single words and whole sentences. This is further stated as one of the programme objectives in the *Teacher's Guide* (see

objective 3 above). In the workbook, pupils start writing single words, e.g. pupils correct sentences by replacing an underlined word with a correct word, and then move on to completing sentences, e.g. pupils complete sentences about their visit to the moon based on a learned dialogue where they say what they did in order of events. Usually this is the way activities like this are done; it is always started for them, and it is expected that they complete it. The textbook and workbook mainly focus on the lower-order thinking skills necessary at this grade level.

Songs and rhymes in the textbook are used to practice the vocabulary and structures introduced in the reading and they usually follow the theme of the lessons. Sharpe (2001) comments on the usefulness of songs

> Through singing traditional songs, made-up songs, catches and rounds, and other age-appropriate material, pupils gradually internalize the structures and patterns for the foreign language as well as the specific language items which the learner may wish them to learn. (2001:148)

The *Teacher's Guide* further presents extra activities, providing ideas for projects which will motivate authentic communication, where pupils have the chance to discuss in groups what they need to do to carry out a project, choosing their own words and structures. For example, the *Teacher's Guide* (2005: xi) states that:

> There is a project in every unit, which acts as a complement to the more formal, systematic parts of the course syllabus. The aim of projects is to allow groups of pupils to make, design, plan or discuss something together

For example, in making a nature park frieze pupils are put in small groups and the teacher hands out magazines with pictures of animals and plants along with glue, scissors, and crayons. Pupils choose the animals and stick them on a piece of paper representing the nature park and write down some rules for visiting the nature park then the teacher puts them on the wall and encourages pupils to discuss them with other groups. This is expected to help pupils to develop independence and to get information by themselves instead of depending on the teacher (*Teacher's Guide*, 2005, grade 4: v-xii). The Guide also introduces journal writing where pupils have the chance to write freely what they want:

> They are given a journal in which they should regularly record what they are doing in the lessons and what they did at home/on holiday/at the weekend, etc. (2005: iv)

The teacher is supposed to remind the pupils to do their journals once a week and then she is supposed to collect them and correct them. If these learner-centred activities are done in class, according to the *Teacher's Guide*, they will help develop students' fluency in English.

Cassettes are used to provide native language input where native speakers, taking the roles of the main characters in the textbook, act out dialogues and songs. This is seen as a pre-requisite to familiarize pupils with English delivered at normal speed with appropriate tone, intonation, and rhythm. The *Teacher's Guide* tells teachers how to use the cassette and how to prepare pupils for a listening activity.

Fun with English also comes with a number of wall charts that can be used to introduce the new lesson, introduce vocabulary, revise a previous lesson, and for language games. Wall charts, along with flashcards, are used to introduce and practice new vocabulary as well as to revise old vocabulary. They can also be used to practice and revise structures, and for discussing and introducing new topics. Finally, they are good for language games as well as spelling and pronunciation.

Based on the above description, we can say that the new textbook/materials along with the *Teacher's Guide* indeed represent a learner-centred method, or weak CLT, which combines a focus on linguistic forms with a focus on communicative functions to achieve linguistic accuracy and communicative fluency. However, we need to evaluate the *Curriculum Document*, the textbooks, and the *Teacher's Guide* to find out whether they match with the expected standards according to Nation's twenty principles.

3.5.1 Evaluating the textbook and materials

One aim here is to see whether they fulfil the curriculum goals, etc. stated in the *Curriculum Document* and the programme objectives listed in the *Teacher's Guide*, especially those related to developing learners' communicative competence, since they seem to be the more difficult to implement and since, as seen above, textbook/materials mainly focus on practicing forms. This is a curriculum goal (a general goal, see above): to develop learner's communicative and linguistic competence in using English fluently and accurately; and part of the mission (also general, see above): to develop learner's self-

learning and motivation to communicate with different audiences for a variety of purposes; and part of the *Teacher's Guide* objectives (specific to grade 4, see above), where pupils express opinions about themselves and the topics in the course, understand and discuss longer texts, and give reasons for their opinions. Many educationalists have set different criteria for evaluating materials (e.g. Cunningsworth, 1995; Nation, 1996; Richards, 2001; Crawford, 2002). In his book *Curriculum Design*, Nation (1996) very usefully states twenty general principles based on SLA research and theory that he says will help in guiding teaching and designing language courses, regardless of age or level. These are related to four areas: planning content, selecting content, ordering content, and finally presenting content. As seen below I will not discuss all of Nation's criterion; I will only discuss those covering selection and presentation. Both planning and ordering material are discussed above under 'curriculum design. Of those covering selection and presentation I will only discuss those principles that can be matched to the *Curriculum Document*, the textbooks, and the *Teacher's Guide*, looking at all three at the same time to find out whether they work in harmony or not.

Table 3.4 Nation's (1996) criteria for textbook/materials evaluation

Nation's Criteria	How criteria are met		
	Kuwaiti Curriculum	**Kuwaiti Text**	**Kuwaiti Teacher's Guide**
ecting material: A course should includes a ghly even balance of four strands neaning focused input, form-used instruction, meaning focused put, and fluency activities[5] tion, 1996:36)	**Proficiency goals** aim to develop pupils listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills -**The main goal** to develop student's accuracy as well as fluency to be communicatively competent. **- Criterion is met.**	Meaning focused input (e.g. listening and reading stories) and form-focused instruction (see Table 3.3 above). Meaning-focused output in the reading text and some fluency activities in the workbook. **- Criterion is met.**	- Similar exercises in textbooks plus projects and journal and story writing to develop meaning focused output and fluency **- Criterion is met.**
cting material: here should be substantial ıtities of interesting prehensible receptive activity in listening eading (Nation, 1996:39)	**-The Curriculum standard for listening** -students listen to oral communication in different situations and for different purposes. **-The standard for reading-** students read a range of texts fiction and non-fiction. **- Criterion is met.**	- There are exercises such as listen and draw, listen and point, etc. -Reading texts, dialogues, stories, songs, etc. **-Criterion is met.**	- Asks teachers to play the cassette to help pupils develop listening strategies. -Asks teachers to let pupils read silently **-Criterion is met.**

[5] Fluency activities as mentioned by Shameem and Tickoo (1998) in their book (*New ways in Using Communicative Games in Language Teaching*).

ecting material: A language course should provide ivities aimed at increasing the ency with which learners can use language they already know, both ceptively and productively (Nation, 96:41)	- **The main goal** to develop learner's linguistic and communicative competence in using English fluently and accurately. -In **speaking- benchmark 2.4-** students begin to develop fluency in speaking. -The same in listening, readings, and writing **-Criterion is met.**	-Exercises mainly develop accuracy. -There are some activities to develop speaking fluency -Pupils listen for specific information -Pupils read for specific information **- Criterion is not met.**	-Tells teachers to ask pupils to listen for gist. - To read silently. -To use journal and story writing and to do projects with students. **- Criterion is met.**
lecting material: The learners should be pushed to oduce the language in both eaking and writing over a range of scourse types (Nation, 1996:43)	**-Benchmark 2.4 for speaking** states that students begin to develop fluency in speaking **-Benchmark 4.4 for writing** states that students write friendly letters and e-mails. **- Criterion is met.**	-Table 3.3 shows different activities to practice speaking. -There are controlled and guided exercises to practice writing (see Table 3.3). **- Criterion is met.**	-Asks teachers to encourage pupils to ask questions and initiate interaction in pairs/groups. -Asks teachers to let pupils write individually or in pairs. -Encourages journal writing, story writing and project work **- Criterion is met.**
lecting material: The course should include form cused instruction in the sound stem, vocabulary, grammar, and course areas (Nation:43)	-**The main goal** to develop students' linguistic competence. **- Criterion is met.**	-Table 3.3 shows exercises where the focus is on practicing structures, pronunciation, punctuation, spelling, and vocabulary. **- Criterion is met.**	-Tells teachers to present and practice the sound system, vocabulary, and structures with pupils **- Criterion is met.**
ecting material: A language course should train ners in how to learn a language how to monitor and be aware of r learning so that they can ome effective and independent uage learners (Nation, 1996:46)	- States its **mission** to develop learners' self-learning **- Criterion is met.**	-Exercises are mainly controlled and guided. **- Criterion is not met.**	- Asks teachers to let pupils guess, read for gist, try to solve problems by themselves and to have a go at activities before the teacher takes control. **- Criterion is met.**
enting material earners should process the items learned as deeply and as ghtfully as possible (Nation, :54).	**- Listening standard** (e.g. students listen effectively and critically) **-Speaking standard** (e.g. express feelings and exchange opinion) **-Speaking benchmark** (e.g. retell a story, participate in group discussion) **- Criterion is met.**	-Table 3.3 shows exercises not to require deep thinking where students point, match, fill in letters or words, -Exercises are either controlled or guided. **- Criterion is not met.**	-It encourages teachers to let pupils guess at words, ask and answer questions after the reading in pairs, and retell stories before the teacher takes over **- Criterion is met.**

The principle of 'planning' is not included in Table 3.4 above, for the reasons discussed above. Therefore I will focus in this section on discussing the remainder of Nation's criteria to give the reader a sense of what they are and whether they are met in the textbook/materials. For planning, there is one principle:

> The selection, ordering, presentation, and assessment of the material in a language course should be based on a careful consideration of the learners and their needs, the teaching conditions, and the time and resources available. (Nation, 1996:34)

This principle is related to curriculum design which is already discussed above. There are nine principles concerning selection of material. I have mentioned six in Table 3.4 above; I will discuss the other three principles here. One of the principles states the following:

> A language course should progressively cover useful language items, skills, and strategies. (Nation, 1996:34)

This criterion is met as the textbook presents useful vocabulary and structures that pupils at this stage need (see Tables 3.1 and 3.3), as well as the *Teacher's Guide* which lists a number of skills and strategies, e.g. retelling a story and guessing words from context. The next principle states that language

> Focus of the course needs to be on the generalisable features of the language. (Nation, 1996:34)

This principle relates to how we help pupils learn the strategies so that they can use them later on to learn by themselves. For example, Nation mentions, instead of teaching pupils just to answer questions after reading, we can teach them how to guess words from context and how to predict events from reading a few lines of a story. This criterion is met, as discussed in the *Teacher's Guide* above. The last principle under this category states that

> A language course should provide the best possible coverage of language in use through the inclusion of items that occur frequently in the language, so that learners get the best return for their learning effort. (Nation, 1996:34).

This applies to the list of vocabulary items and structures (see Table 3.1 above) where the textbooks should include the most frequent ones in the language so that learners benefit from learning them. Examining the textbooks revealed that they include both high frequency, e.g. work, afternoon, home, and low frequency vocabulary, e.g. beekeeper, planetarium. The next category is related to ordering, and it includes

> The teaching of language items should take account of the most favourable sequencing of these items and should take accounts of when the learners are most ready to learn them. (Nation, 1996:34)

This means that we should provide learners with structures that move from the simple to the most complex ones. This criterion is met, as structures (see Table 3.1) move from simple to more complex and teachers start with the present simple tense, which is usually acquired first, then move on to the past simple tense and then the progressive. The next principle states that

> The course should help the learners to make the most effective use of previous knowledge. (Nation, 1996:34)

This criterion is met in the textbook as most of the topics are already presented to pupils during their studies in their Science or Geography classes in their L1 such as 'Planting a tree', 'The Planetarium', etc. (see Table 3.1 for a list). The next principle says that the items

> in a language course should be sequenced so that items which are learned together have appositive effect on each other for learning and so that interference effects are avoided. (Nation, 1996:34)

In the textbook pupils learn opposites, e.g. longest/shortest or bigger/smaller etc., but the teacher can present them separately first and through repetition students can learn them easily. The criterion is met because pupils have started to learn English from grade one and they know for example 'long' and 'short' or 'big' and 'small' and here they learn the comparatives. Finally, learners

> should have increasingly spaced, repeated opportunities to retrieve and give attention to wanted items in a variety of contexts. (Nation, 1996:34)

This criterion is met as the textbook includes revision unites after every four units. Also it revises present simple tense and present continuous introduced to pupils in previous grade levels. The last area is presentation which includes six principles. One is mentioned on Table 3.4. The next principle states that

> As much as possible, the learners should be interested and excited about learning the language and they should come to value this learning. (Nation, 1996:34)

This criterion is not met as the textbook is full of controlled and guided activities where learners are not left to choose what they would like to say. They are not challenged as shown on the kind of tasks and exercises presented in Table 3.3. The next principle relates to the target language

> As much time as possible should be spent using and focusing on the second language. (Nation, 1996:34)

This criterion relates to what goes on in the classroom and therefore will be answered in Chapter Five. Another principle of Nation's is that

> A course should be presented so that the learners have the most favourable attitudes to the language, to users of the language, to the teacher's skill in teaching the language, and to their chance of success in learning the language. (Nation, 1996:34)

The *Teacher's Guide* asks teachers not to over-correct pupils and to change the base of the lesson so pupils do not get bored. It asks teachers to use more interesting activities where pupils can solve the puzzles and feel confident about themselves. The next principle relates to feedback

> Learners should receive helpful feedback which will allow them to improve the quality of their language use. (Nation, 1996:34)

This criterion refers to feedback given by the teacher or by other pupils and it is met in the *Teacher's Guide* which asks teachers to let pupils work individually then compare their answers with their partners or work in pairs. Some of the exercises in the textbook also allow pupils to interact together where they get feedback from each other. Finally,

> There should be opportunity for learners to work with the learning material in ways that most suit their individual leaning style. (Nation, 1996:34)

The criterion is met in the *Teacher's Guide* and in the textbook where activities vary in what pupils are asked to do (e.g. complete, draw, colour and match) and in whether the activities are done individually or in pairs or groups (see Table 3.3). Overall, classroom observation will show the way teachers teach and the way pupils depend on teachers to give them all the information.

These evaluation criteria show a programme implementation that is learner-centred, providing learners with form-focused activities that involve controlled and guided production as well as communicative activities that involve free production. This is in accordance with the Kuwaiti curriculum where some of the benchmarks for the primary stage are communicative, intended to develop students' fluency, e.g. tell and retell a story, share ideas, participate in group discussion, express feelings, while the competencies and objectives (for grade 1) are form-focused to develop accuracy, e.g. recognize, comprehend, categorize objects and match. Programme objectives stated in the *Teacher's Guide* for primary grade 4 include, e.g. understand, repeat, respond, and express opinion, discuss, give reasons, aiming for a learner-centred method of focusing on both structure and communication. A detailed analysis of the textbook and materials in use showed that materials in general, as well as the *Curriculum Document*, state a learner-centred approach and showed the textbooks to be focusing on accuracy more than fluency. The next component to be discussed is 'assessment' to find out whether it matches with the textbook and the curriculum document.

3.6 Assessment in primary EFL classrooms in Kuwait

In Kuwait, for grade 4 pupils, ongoing assessment is used with oral skills on the basis of the teacher's overall observation of how students participate in class. The teacher fills out a sheet where she gives a final grade out of 400 for different oral skills and sub-skills twice a term, i.e. four times a year (see table 3.5 below). In the table, reading comprehension, composition, and handwriting, are included alongside oral skills, although they are sub-skills of writing. They are all assessed four times a year.

Table 3.5 On going assessment for grade 4

Main skills	Sub-skills	Assessment	Points	Total
Listening	Listening comprehension	Almost daily	100	100
Speaking	1. Oral fluency 2. Retell a story 3. Participates in short dialogues	Almost daily Almost daily	50 50	100
Reading	4. Reading aloud 5. Reading comprehension	Almost daily a. three read &match (3x10) b. three true or false or three semi-productive questions (3x10)	40 60	100
Writing	6. Composition 7. Handwriting & Punctuation	a. five reorder words to form sentences (5x12) b. five reorder sentences to form a story (5x12) a. two sentence handwriting (2x10) b. one sentence punctuation (1x20)	60 40	100
Total				400

As for other sub-skills (see Table 3.6), achievement tests are used. Primary EFL students are tested twice a term, four times a year and they get a final grade out of 60. This is added up to oral assessment, which is a grade out of 40 (mark out of 400 divided by 10) and the student gets a final grade out of 100. After examining tests collected from state schools and from the English Inspectorate at the Ministry of Education, they can be seen to follow guidelines set forth by the Ministry of Education, which are discussed below. A closer examination of these, as well as the tests themselves, confirms that they mainly focus on reading and writing skills.

Table 3.6 End of term achievement test (first, second, third, fourth) for grade 4

Branch	Type of questions	Items	Points	Total
Vocabulary	a) Fill in the spaces	3	3	9
	b) Word sets (two sets, three words each)	2	3	6
Structure	a) Multiple choice (tenses/ prepositions/ comparatives/ pronouns)	5	2	10
Language Functions	a) Matching	3	3	9
	b) Complete the missing parts of the dialogue	2	3	6
Set Book	a) True or false	3	2	6
	b) Productive questions (of general nature)	2	2	4
Spelling	Words with missing letters (two missing letters in each word)	5	2	10
Total				60

Tests and assessment reflect what pupils have been taught in the textbook which insures content validity, that is, the degree to which a test measures an intended content area (Gay, 1992). To demonstrate my point, an example is given here of what pupils are asked to do concerning structure.[6]

A- Underline the correct answer:-

1. Salem (has born- was born- have born) on June 18th.

2. (I – My) friend is a zookeeper.

On functions, the pupils are asked to

Match

1. How are you?	Let's have lunch.
2. I'm hungry.	I'm fine, thank you.
	Yes, of course.

In assessing composition as a sub-skill, pupils usually reorder words to form sentences or reorder sentences to form a story. Pupils are not given the chance to write and express themselves freely without worrying about errors. As we discussed above, transfer goals stated in the Kuwaiti curriculum dictate that students need to transfer what they learn in English to other situations and subjects. Also the goal is to develop fluency and accuracy;

[6] These tests are from the schools and from the English Inspectorate at the Ministry of Education.

it seems however, by looking at Table 3.6, that the skills focused on most, and given 60% of the grade (100), are the written skills. What about aural/oral skills? Why are they on a separate table (Table 3.5) and only get 40% of the whole grade? Why there is no aural/oral component added to the end of term achievement tests? Isn't the goal to develop accuracy and fluency? Nonetheless, the textbook shows activities where reading and writing are combined with listening and speaking, e.g. read, ask & answer or listen & write, etc., and the *Teacher's Guide* provides (in an appendix) five tests where aural/oral skills are combined with reading and writing, e.g. listen & order sentences.

As for the speaking skill, we can see from Table 3.5 that pupils are assessed on their oral fluency by either picking a topic from their textbook or choosing their own topic, and then they prepare five lines of their own and must be prepared to retell it in class. They are assessed on their oral fluency activity four times a year. The teacher is instructed to give the pupil a grade as indicated in Table 3.5 above. However, there are no discrete criteria, e.g. fluency, accuracy, clarity of topic, order of ideas, how it is presented, etc., that the teacher uses; just overall judgment of the pupil's performance on the activity, which makes assessment of pupils' oral fluency inaccurate and makes it hard to detect areas of weakness and plan for remedy. Pupils are also assessed on their ability to retell a story in pictures as well as their participation in short dialogues. With respect to listening, pupils are assessed on their ability to comprehend what they hear and answer questions about it. Most of the oral assessment could be said to be subjective (overall judgment) since it depends on the teacher's memory of the pupil's performance in a class of 30 pupils. Reading tests examine pupils' ability to read aloud sentences or a short text from the textbook. Reading comprehension, where pupils read a text and answer questions about it, is assessed twice a term, i.e. four times a year, as well as for all on going assessment. As for writing skills, composition is restricted to reordering words or sentences. Finally, handwriting and punctuation is where pupils are assessed on sentence handwriting and punctuation. Ongoing assessment and achievement tests, as demonstrated by the tables above, except for the 'oral fluency activity', are controlled and form-focused asking pupils to reproduce drilled structures, functions/notions, and content.

The above tests are those used by the teachers as dictated by the Ministry of Education and the English Inspectorate. As discussed above, the *Teacher's Guide* also offers its own

assessment of pupils' skills. It, for example, tells teachers to use portfolio assessment of pupils' written work during the whole year.[7] It also suggests interviewing pupils to assess their speaking skill individually or in pairs when the whole class is working on a task that does not need too much supervision. It sets guidelines for evaluating speaking, e.g. on fluency, understanding the question, and answering in full. It also provides a 'profile sheet' to find out whether lesson objectives are achieved by individual pupils or not.[8] The *Teacher's Guide* further provides five sample tests at the end of the *Teachers' Guide* where listening and speaking are integrated with reading and writing, e.g. ask and answer questions with a partner, where pupils are provided with a list of questions to ask their friends, which are unlike the sample tests examined above where no listening or speaking component is added. These tests are not referred to in the Ministry of Education tables above (see Tables 3.5, 3.6) so classroom observation and interviews are needed to determine what is used (see below).

To summarize, evaluation of measurement of progress in primary grade 4 EFL achievement tests are, as seen from the tables above, form-focused to measure accuracy. They measure only linguistic competence while communicative competence, which includes "measures of fluency and the ability to understand and transmit information in a variety of tasks" (Lightbown & Spada, 2006:142), is not tested. For example, free writing is not focused on in those tables above or in the sample tests examined. Journals and projects, mentioned in the *Teacher's Guide*, are not part of achievement tests or ongoing assessment and pupils are not evaluated on them according to the Ministry tables above: "although sections for further practice are always optional, all class projects should be done" (the *Teacher's Guide*,2005:xii). As for journals, the Guide asks the teacher to remind pupils to do them and to collect last week's journal to correct. As for oral fluency, the table above (see Table 3.5) is not so clear as to what goes on in class or how well it works towards developing students' oral fluency. Portfolio assessment, if used, is not included in the Ministry tables above which work toward full assessment of pupils' work at the end of the year. If teachers are following the Ministry of Education tables above for ongoing assessment and achievement tests, then their teaching would be oriented towards

[7] A portfolio is a collection of teacher observations combined with pupils' work, which is supposed to be collected throughout the year. It can include the teacher's assessment and notes, pupils' journals, samples of their work, e.g. projects, and completed tests (Teacher's Guide, 2005:xviii).
[8] This is a table that consists of a number of columns. The first one lists the objectives of every lesson, then the rest of the columns are numbered from 1 to 35 where each number represents a pupil. The teacher is supposed to write the class name at the top of the table (*Teacher's Guide*, 2005:ii).

accuracy more than fluency. Although the *Teacher's Guide* makes suggestions about how assessment needs to follow a leaner-centred method, as discussed above, we need to find out through classroom observation what goes on in the classroom. Curriculum goals and standards dictate how textbook/materials will be used to fulfil these. Assessment is a way of finding out whether curriculum goals and standards have been achieved and whether the textbook/materials, methods, and techniques chosen are suitable. But are teachers teaching to satisfy Ministry of Education assessment represented by the tables above? Or are they teaching to satisfy assessment as proposed by the *Teacher's Guide?* Or is it a combination of both?

We now consider teacher training in terms of how it prepares teachers to use the textbook/materials and how to conduct assessment to achieve curriculum goals and standards. We will consider training programmes teachers for primary EFL have in Kuwait.

The textbook and materials in use, as seen above, imply the preparation of teachers through specific training programs to allow for the proper delivery of those activities in the classroom. Curriculum goals and benchmarks are linked not only to the textbook/materials but also to teacher practice and preparation. The textbook/materials should be set to accomplish curriculum goals and benchmarks, and examining the textbook can show what skills/knowledge teachers need to have to be able to use the texts and materials. If the course aims for both fluency and accuracy, as stated in the *Curriculum Document* as well as the *Teacher's Guide*, teachers need to be qualified and proficient in the language. On the other hand, some of the topics presented in the textbook, e.g. planetarium, Nature Park, require teachers to have some background information about these topics (Wise, 1999). Let's now turn to training programmes in Kuwait to complete consideration of the components of EFL delivery.

3.7 Training programmes in Kuwait

Teacher education consists of two main programmes: pre-service and in-service training. Richards and Nunan (1990: 283) make a distinction between these and between education and training where pre-service education "provides the breadth and scope of the various disciplines which become teachers' background knowledge" and in-service training

"pinpoints specific areas by offering a repertoire of techniques to use in a known situation".

3.7.1 Pre-service courses

The Faculty of Education at Kuwait University, which is one of the authorities besides the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, PAAET where teachers in the country are educated, runs a pre-service program to prepare education majors to teach English at the primary stage.[9] This programme was implemented in September 1995 (see appendix 4), and was set to achieve the following objectives, as stated in Al-Mutawa (1995:2):

- Give teachers a cultural background
- Develop language skills of teachers
- Provide teachers with information about the theories and the literature on EFL
- Develop teachers' knowledge about the methods and techniques of teaching English as a foreign language at the primary stage
- Provide teachers with information about the educational and psychological theories and principles of teaching and learning at the primary stage
- Prepare teachers through teaching practice to teach in primary school classes

Table 3.7 gives a list of the relevant courses given at the university, including their content and credit hours (for a full list see appendix 4).[10] For some of those courses it was seen as relevant to find out about the kind of textbooks/references used during those courses.[11]

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[9]At the time of the study PAAET was beginning the process of preparing English teachers to teach at primary schools and no teachers had graduated yet (at that time) so all the teachers in my sample are Kuwait University graduates.

[10] Students should cover 60 credits: three compulsory non-credited courses, 45 credits from compulsory courses, then 15 credits from electives.

[11] It is important to note that the teachers teaching those courses differ in the kind of textbooks/references they recommend in the course as well as how they evaluate their students. Although some of the course descriptions that I managed to find are still the same as I was told, some have been updated.

Table 3.7 Linguistics and Language Acquisition courses (taken from AL-Mutawa, 1995:1-46)

Major Courses	Content	Books sources	Credits
Applied Linguistics	Theories of first and second language acquisition, cognitive variation in language learning, the communicative approach	Ellis, R. (1985) *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford:OUP Elsvan, T.(1984) *Applied Linguistics and the Learning and Teaching of Foreign Languages*. Edward Arnold Brown, D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Longman:Addison Wesley.	3
Language Acquisition	Acquisition of the native language, the major theories in language acquisition, the distinction between learning and acquisition	Aitchison, J. (1998) *The Articulate Mammal: An Introduction to Psycholinguistics*. London: Routledge; Chomsky, N. (1986) *Knowledge of Language: its nature origin & use*. NewYork: Praeger; Chomsky, N. (1988) *Language and Problems of Knowledge*. Cambridge Mass:MIT Press; Cook, V. (1988) *Chomsky's Universal Grammar: An introduction*. Oxford:Basil Blackwell; Elliot, A. (1981). *Child Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; Fetcher, P.; Michael G. (1986) *Language Acquisition Studies in Language Development* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; Reich, P. (1986). *Language Development*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.	3

Other than the two compulsory major courses shown on Table 3.7 above, teachers take other compulsory major courses (with 3 credits each) but which are not of primary concern to this thesis such as Introduction to Linguistics where they study topics such as phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics. In Phonetics and Phonology they learn about articulatory phonetics and phonetic transcription. In a course called Psycholinguistics they study topics such as correlation between behaviour and the psychological processes and psychological constraints on the use of language, such as memory limitation. In Sociolinguistics they learn about aspects of the relationship between language and society. In Morphology and Syntax they study topics such as morphemes, morphemic analysis, inflectional and derivational forms. In Generative Syntax they learn about the standard models of transformational grammar. In Semantics they study topics such as word meaning, and sentence meaning, with emphasis on sense relations between words and prepositions. In Discourse Analysis they learn about structure of naturally spoken language found in conversations, interviews, and speeches (See appendix 4 for other courses that are not a direct interest to this study).

Teachers are well prepared in linguistic theory, which can help them understand how people acquire languages, explain the difficulties their learners might have when learning English and help teachers find more effective ways to help their learners acquire the language. Student teachers further take Education courses to prepare them for what to teach, how to plan for their lessons, how to manage their classrooms, and how to assess their students.[12] Table 3.8 shows some of those courses that are relevant to the present study (for a list of all the courses see appendix 4).

Table 3.8 Education courses (taken from Al-Mutawa, 1995:1-46)

Professional Courses	Content	Books sources	Credits
Principles of Educational Psychology	Motivation and its relation to learning, the psychology of learning	-Al-Omar,B. (1999) *The Learner in Educational Psychology.* Kuwait:Kuwait University; *-Journal of Educational Psychology*-USA	3
Psychology of Development	The process of development in kindergarten and elementary children	-Al-Shibani, B. (2000) *Psychology of Development*, Kuwait: Center for transcripts. -Esmaeel, M. (1998) *A child from birth to adulthood*, Kuwait: Dar -Al-Ghalam. -*Child Psychology* (a journal), -*Child Development and Personality* (a journal).	3
Primary School Curriculum	The nature and trends of contemporary curricula in the primary stages, the components of curriculum construction, the current curriculum in Kuwait primary schools	Seefieldt, C. (1999) *The early childhood curriculum*, USA: Teacher College Press; Kelly, A. (2004). *The Curriculum: theory and practice.* Sage Publications; *Curriculum Journal*, *Currirulum and Teaching* , *International Journal of Early Years Education*, *TESOL Quarterly*, *ELT Journal*	3
Educational Technology	Instructional media in kindergarten and elementary school, the operation of such equipment, the production of appropriate materials	A handout prepared and provided by the course instructor	3
Teaching English to Young Learners (1)	Introductory background (language learning vs. language acquisition, influence of linguistics in FL learning/acquisition, characteristics of young learners), trends in FL teaching (communicative competence/performance), methods and approaches (the Aural-Oral Approach, the Communicative Approach, the Natural Approach, the Eclectic approach), factors influencing methods (the FL teacher, clarity of objectives, classroom environment, testing procedures), Planning teacher's work, Audio-visual aids, FL testing	Brumfit, C. (1991). *Teaching English to children* London: Collins; Richards, J. Rodgers, T. (1986). *Approaches and methods in language teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; Scott, W., Ytreberg, L. (1990) *Teaching English to children.* London: Longman; Canale M. & Swain, M. (1980), Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing, *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 1-47; Littlewood, W. (1981). *Communicative Language Teaching: an introduction*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.	3

[12] Students should cover 45 credits: 42 credits from professional compulsory courses. Three credits from elective courses.

Teaching English to Young Learners (2)	Aims of EFL teaching in the primary stage, methods and techniques (an integrative approach, teaching language skills, using games, songs, drama, storybooks, learning to learn, creativity with young learners, developing the ability to communicate via activities), TEFL in Kuwait primary schools (objectives, content, methods, audio-visual aids)	Brumfit, C., Moon, J. (1991) *Teaching English to children.* London: Collins; Brewster, C., Ellis, G. Girard, D. (1991) The primary English teacher's guide. England: Penguin English; Krashen, S., Scarcella, R., Long, M. (1982) *Child-adult differences in second language acquisition.* Rowley Mass: Newbury House Publishers.	3
Seminar=English to Young Learners	Issues and problems in teaching English to young learners in large classes, language interference in reading and writing, audio-visual aids, commenting on actual lessons on video, evaluation of English to young learners teaching materials, planning specific activities in class	Al-Dabbos, J. Howells, G. (1994) *Teacher training.* Kuwait: Kuwait University; Brumfit, C., Moon, J. (1991) *Teaching English to children.* London: Collins; Kennedy, C., Jarvis, J. (1991*) Ideas and issues in primary ELT.* Walton: Nelson; Phillips, S. (1993) *Young learners.* Oxford: OUP	2
Teaching Practice (Practicum)	Actual teaching in primary school classes		10

As shown in Table 3.8, student teachers are well prepared not only in linguistics but also in what they need to know about young learners, how they learn a foreign language, and how to teach them. They are also introduced to the major methods in FL teaching.

This programme is typical for pre-service EFL teachers in Kuwait. However, as discussed in Chapter Two, not all teachers have been required to follow the same courses. Because of shortage in the number of primary EFL teachers, the Ministry of Education recruited teachers with no primary Education background who were teaching at the intermediate and secondary stage at the time. They have taken most of the major linguistic modules taken by primary EFL teachers, but have not taken Principles of Educational Psychology and Psychology of Development, although they have taken other courses, such as Educational Psychology and Psychological Hygiene. They haven't taken Primary School Curriculum and wouldn't therefore know in advance about the current curricula in Kuwait primary schools; though they have taken a course called Curricula, and would know about curricula in general. They have not taken Teaching English to Young Learners (1) and (2), and would not know about approaches and methods of FL teaching/learning and their implications for young learners, or what suitable materials and methods to adopt with young learners. Still, they have taken ELT Methodology I and II. They haven't taken 'Seminar=English to young learners', which is designed to provide support during teaching practice, and wouldn't be prepared at this stage to plan lessons or discuss problems of teaching young learners. Still, they take Teaching Practice (see appendix 5

for a full list of the courses they take) but their experience of teaching English is with intermediate and secondary learners. As detailed, what this group of teachers is missing is knowledge specific to young learners: how they develop, how they learn, how best to teach them and what curricula, methods/approaches, procedures and assessments suit them.

There are also those with a BA in Language and Literature. For those teachers, Table 3.9 shows some of the courses they take that are relevant to the present study for a list of all the courses see appendix 6.

Table 3.9 Language and Literature courses (taken from the Department of English)[13]

Major Courses	Content	Credits
Introduction to Linguistics	Theories in language and linguistics including a survey in phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics	3
Applied Linguistics	Examines language, learning and teaching, schools of L2 learning, approaches to L1 learning, teaching methods, styles of learning and communication strategies, personality and L2 learning factors, contrastive and error analysis	3
Language Acquisition	Acquisition of the native language, second language acquisition, distinction between acquisition and learning	3
Sociolinguistics	Language and regional variation, dialects, accents, language and ethnic identity, language and sub-cultures, language and situation, register, language and social class, language and gender, bilingualism, code-switching, diglossia.	3
Discourse Analysis	Politeness theory, the co-operative principles, speech act theory, and felicity conditions, cohesion, conversational analysis	3
Psycholinguistics	Understanding language and the brain, psychological processes underlying language perception, comprehension and production, and those of storage and access in relation to the internal lexicon.	3

As seen above, these teachers have taken required and major courses (see appendix 6) where they study literature (survey of drama, survey of fiction, survey of poetry) and linguistics (see Table 3.9). Only in Applied Linguistics do they study about learning and teaching and teaching methods, but it is an elective course and they have to choose between it and Language Acquisition. Teachers graduating from this department do not usually teach as they are not well prepared to. That's why when they were recruited, as in this study, they had to take the three-part Ministry of Education in-service training along

[13] University requirements (30 credits -10 courses) divided into compulsory (18 credits- 6courses) and electives (12 credits- 4 courses), Major (48 credits- 16 courses) divided into compulsory (30 credits- 10 courses) and electives (18 credits – 6 courses)

with Longman training sessions discussed below to prepare them to teach and to introduce them to the new curriculum. This will be discussed below.

Students, i.e. student teachers are usually assessed through a midterm and a final exam, which are both written exams. University teachers differ in the way they evaluate their students. Some courses might consider attendance, participation, presentation, quizzes, or projects, depending on the teacher. Most of the grade is usually awarded for the written exams and quizzes. At the end, student teachers get a final grade out of 100. For example, in Language Acquisition there is a midterm worth 20%, quizzes (10%), homework (5%), field study (15%) and a final exam (50%).[14] So, 80% goes to written exams. In Applied Linguistics student teachers get 25% on participation, 10% on quizzes, 10% on homework, 20% on midterm, 10% on presentation and 40% on final exam. So, 70% goes to written exams.

As seen above, the pre-service training for teachers with a background in Education is full of information preparing them linguistically (in terms of Linguistics and Language Acquisition courses) and professionally (in terms of Education courses) to teach young learners. The handbook (Al-Mutawa, 1995: 1-46) also says that teachers are introduced to the current curriculum in Kuwaiti primary schools as well as to different methodologies in FL teaching including the Communicative Approach (see Primary School Curriculum and Teaching English to Young Learners 1 and 2).

By now Kuwaiti primary EFL teachers with primary Education background know about the theories of first and second language acquisition and the difference between acquisition and learning (according to Table 3.7). They are also introduced to the Communicative Approach in Applied Linguistics and to the primary EFL curriculum as well as how to design a curriculum during their Primary School Curriculum course (see Table 3.8). They are familiar with the textbook/materials used in primary EFL as well as the teaching method used, as they are introduced to them during Seminar=English to Young Learners course (see Table 3.8). They learn about what a good test looks like in Teaching English to Young Learners (1). They learn about the history of language teaching methods including the Communicative Approach in Teaching English to Young

[14] I managed to get the syllabus content including the distribution of grades (Form 1 Learning outcomes in relation to course content, 2005) from the department of Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition.

Learners (1) and (2). A primary EFL teacher would know the difference between a strong CLT or a learning-centred method, and a weak CLT or a learner-centred method (see Chapter Two). What is left to be seen is how teachers are actually trained to teach.

3.7.1.1 Teaching practice (Practicum)

In Kuwait, teaching practice (i.e. practicum) has 10 credit hours. Students need to successfully complete the prerequisite courses mentioned above. They spend three months, beginning late September to the end of December, practicing teaching in primary state schools. They spend the first two weeks observing teachers teaching in their classrooms before they start to teach. For five days a week they teach a class on their own and also administer tests. They are supervised by a supervisor appointed by the English Inspectorate at the Ministry of Education, by the head English teacher, and by the school principal and are evaluated by all three. At the end of the practicum, the student teacher gets a grade out of a hundred divided as follows: 30 by the supervisor, 50 by the head teacher, and 20 by the school principal (Al-Mutawa,1995:38). After teachers graduate from the university and start to teach at state schools, they further engage in in-service training.

3.7.2 In-service training courses

3.7.2.1 The three-part Ministry of Education training course

As said before, the decision to teach English at the primary stage in 1993 forced the Kuwaiti Ministry of Education to recruit teachers already teaching English at intermediate and secondary schools to teach at primary schools. Some of those teachers were Education majors but some were English and Literature majors. Education majors either had primary Education training or Education training in general. The first part of the in-service teacher training program fills in a gap in teachers' knowledge for those with non-primary Education and for those from English and Literature. All three courses are required depending on the teacher's major (Education/Non-primary, Language and Literature, Education/primary) and their expertise (new/experienced). It is offered by the English Inspectorate at the Ministry of Education. The first course is a Training Course for New Teachers and is given only to those newly recruited teachers who majored in Language and Literature and have no teaching experience whatsoever and to those who come from other Arabic-speaking countries and have no idea about the new curriculum.

It includes topics such as characteristics of learners, the new textbook, lesson planning, classroom management, CLT, teaching the four skills, structure, language functions, vocabulary and composition, preparing exams and using audio-visual aids. The course lasts for eight days, at three and a half hours a day (English Inspectorate at the Ministry of Education Document, 2005).

The second training course is called Ways of Teaching English in the Primary Stage. It is given to all those without specification in primary English who are going to teach at the primary stage, which includes teachers with intermediate and secondary Education and those who majored in Language and Literature. It differs from the previous course in two ways. First, it focuses mainly on the primary stage by defining the specific objectives of teaching English at the primary stage; how to deal with children; and how to motivate them. Second, it takes a comprehensive look at the general objectives of teaching English as a FL and the history of FL teaching methods with specific focus on CLT. It is given two days a week, at three and a half hours a day and lasts for one month. The course syllabus is organized as follows: (English Inspectorate at the Ministry of Education Document, 2005)

Goals and objectives of teaching English as a FL

- Introducing the general goals of teaching English as a FL which specify four domains, proficiency, cognitive, affective, and transfer and the specific goals of teaching English at the primary stage which are more specific to primary grade pupils and are stated above.
- Dealing with young learners
- Showing how to deal with children of different abilities
- Showing how to motivate pupils to learn

Using Audio-visual aids

- Introducing the different kinds of audio-visual aids and how to choose and prepare them

Methods and techniques of teaching

- Introducing different methods of teaching English as a FL with specific reference to the Communicative Approach used today
- Showing how to teach vocabulary, structure, and communicative activities

- Showing how to teach composition, reading comprehension, and listening comprehension
- Presenting small lesson plans applying different linguistic activities and evaluating them

Testing

- Showing how to design tests, and how to analyze their results with real practice of making tests

At the end of the course teachers are evaluated in two ways: first they have to present mini-model lessons on different language activities and are evaluated on it. Second, they have to pass a final written exam.

It is stated in those training courses above that teachers are introduced to CLT and, according to the textbook and the *Teacher's Guide* discussed above, it is weak CLT or the learner-centred method. Teachers are shown by the lecturer how to teach communicative activities and other skills and sub-skills. We can find out about the actual methodology used by teachers once we start looking at classroom observation data in Chapter Five.

The third training course is called The Latest Trends in Technology Use as an Aid in Teaching is also available from the English Inspectorate at the Ministry of Education for all teachers of all grade levels. Teachers are taught how to use the internet for teaching English. This course lasts for five weeks (twice a week for three hours a day) (English Inspectorate at the Ministry of Education Document, 2005).

3.7.2.2 Longman training course

With the introduction of a new primary EFL textbook and a new approach, Longman felt the need to offer a training course to make sure teachers knew how to use the textbook in their classrooms to achieve the general goals and objectives of teaching English at the primary stage.

According to my informant, Longman has offered this with the British Council in Kuwait since 2003.[15] The course is usually offered after a month of the beginning of the school year along with the new textbook when it is introduced, so for every new textbook introduced, i.e. for the different grade levels, there is a training course to launch it. Trainers from Britain and Australia are recruited by the British Council and they sit with the Higher Committee members for the Ministry of Education to become familiar with the new curriculum. New as well as experienced teachers are randomly chosen to attend the training sessions; there is not enough space or enough trainers to train all teachers at once. The training sessions mainly introduce the new curriculum as trainers model lessons for the teachers and teachers are asked for their feedback. Every week teachers are chosen by the Higher Committee at the Ministry of Education from two educational zones.[16] One hundred and twenty five teachers are chosen randomly and are divided into five groups, twenty five teachers in every group for every trainer. The course lasts for five days for three hours a day. Trainers show teachers how to implement weak CLT by teaching the four skills; by teaching vocabulary, structure, and language functions; by managing time; and by integrating the four skills. Teachers are not evaluated but receive a certificate of attendance. When they go back to their school, there is follow up only by the English Inspectorate at the Ministry of Education. The training course is evaluated by the Higher Committee for the Ministry of Education with a questionnaire given to teachers at the end of the training sessions. Every year they write a full report evaluating the training course, which is sent to a higher authority at the Ministry of Education.

To sum up, the pre-service and the three-part Ministry of Education training courses introduce teachers to the Communicative Approach as well as other approaches and methods and how to teach the four skills, including grammar and vocabulary, as well as testing. The Longman training sessions are the ones responsible for training teachers in what Kuwait calls an "integrated approach" mentioned in the *Teacher's Guide* and above

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[15] I met with one of the Higher Committee for the Ministry of Education members. She has been with the committee since they started producing the textbook (the committee supervises and follows the textbook production in cooperation with Longman) and I got information about the training programme.

[16] An educational zone is an educational administration under the supervision of the MOE that is responsible for schools and teachers working in that area. It follows up teachers, provides supervisors, and does administrative work. There are six educational zones in Kuwait located in the capital city, Hawalli, Al-Farwaniyah, Mubarak Al-Kabeer, Al-Jahra, and Al-Ahmadi.

(section 3.4) as a weak CLT or learner-centred method, which is the method used in the current textbook/materials.

3.8 Summary: Primary English in Kuwait

In this summary I intend to present the main components of EFL delivery in Kuwait and start to explore whether these all work together to develop learners' linguistic and communicative competence in terms of both accuracy and fluency to help learners "to master the English language in order to succeed in school, higher education and at work" (*Curriculum Document*,2005:1). This is accomplished by using an approach which integrates the four skills for effective communication; by building positive attitudes towards English using it with confidence; by building linguistic competence to help learners pursue their higher education; by fostering pride in Islam and patriotism to Kuwait as well as acceptance of other cultures; and by developing learners' self-learning.

To begin with, the new curriculum states as its main goal "to develop learners' communicative and linguistic competence in using English fluently and accurately" (*Curriculum Document*, 2005:6). This is also stated in the *Teacher's Guide* "to ensure that pupils will learn to use English both fluently and accurately" (*Teacher's Guide*, 2005: i). The method used to accomplish these goals is weak CLT or a learner-centred method, which uses PPP where structures and notions/functions are pre-sequenced, presented, and practiced before they are produced by pupils in meaning-focused activities (see Chapter Two). The *Teacher's Guide* calls it "an integrated approach" and defines it as a weak CLT (see Chapter Two/section 2.7). It is also expressed in the *Curriculum Document* under competencies and objectives for grade 1, e.g. under listening the competency, "acquire high frequency structures" and the objective "identify interrogative structures" (2005:18); also in speaking, it gives the competency "use functions appropriately" and the objective "use greetings" (2005:20). The overall aim is not only linguistic but communicative competence in using the language accurately and fluently, and is expressed in the curriculum standard for speaking "the student engages in conversation in order to express feelings and emotions, and exchange opinions on a variety of topics" (2005:19). The benchmark for speaking for the primary stage states "the student can share ideas and participate in group discussions, use structures, functions, and actions appropriately in groups to express feelings and ideas fluently and effectively" (2005:20).

As discussed above, *Fun with English* uses a structural and notional/functional syllabus where notions and functions revolve around a grammar core (see Chapter Two). Structures, vocabulary, and notions/functions are presented in meaningful contexts through the use of topics. The four skills are integrated in the exercises/activities in the textbooks, as seen in Table 3.3. The textbooks focus more on forms than on communication (see Table 3.3) and, although there are activities that allow pupils to interact with each other, e.g. in an activity called 'ask a friend' pupils practice the past continuous by asking their friends the same question 'where were you at 4 o'clock yesterday afternoon? What were you doing? To get personal information to fill in a table, they are a few compared with those that practice forms for their own sake.

Achievement tests follow the syllabus and measure pupils' knowledge of the language, i.e. vocabulary, structures, language functions, set book and spelling (see Table 3.6). However, achievement tests do not include aural/oral assessment, as discussed above. Oral assessment is done separately and is based on teachers' observation of students' behaviour during the year.

Teachers in Kuwait are prepared in theory as far as the courses they have at the university as well as in practice as far as the training they get during their practicum and when they start to teach. The question is, whether theory is linked with practice. Although the pre-service programmes seem to prepare teachers to teach using a learner-centred method/ weak CLT, as far as the courses they take at the University of Kuwait, e.g. Teaching English to Young Learners 1 and 2, Primary School Curriculum, Seminar=English to Young learners, and the practicum, and during their in-service training, e.g. Training Course for New Teachers, Ways of Teaching English in the Primary Stage, and Longman training courses, it is still not clear whether teachers actually do implement a learner-centred method in their classrooms. This needs further investigation in light of below average English scores mentioned in section 3.2. Another issue that waits to be seen is whether teachers who come from two different backgrounds, those with an Education background, i.e. have taken the courses above, been through the practicum, and been through the Longman training course, and those with no Education background, i.e. have only taken the in-service training and the Longman training course, vary in their implementation of a learner-centred method. This is left to be seen during classroom observation in Chapter Five.

3.8.1. The components working together

The *National Curriculum* aims to develop students' linguistic as well as communicative competence.

> The main goal of Kuwait's EFL curriculum is to develop learner's communicative and linguistic competence in using English fluently and accurately (*Curriculum Document*, 2005: 6)

It aims to focus on accuracy as well as fluency through a learner-centred method, combining a focus on linguistic structures and communicative functions through meaning-focused activities, according to the *Teacher's Guide*

> The integrated approach which has been adopted in this course presents grammatical and functional models for learners. It enables the immediate use of language for communication whilst at the same time encouraging the learners' awareness of the accurate use of language structures. (2005: xii)

The above discussion of the Kuwaiti standards, e.g. listen effectively and critically to oral communication in situations which serve different purposes and involve a variety of speakers, and benchmarks, e.g. the student can comprehend common expressions, comprehend and identify information in a listened-to-text, as well as competencies, e.g. identify words and simple sentences, and objectives, e.g. identify colours, clearly shows that Kuwait is adopting a weak CLT approach, i.e. a learner-centred method where both accuracy and fluency are emphasized (see Chapter Two).

The textbooks *Fun with English*, grade 4 also reflect a learner-centred approach to FL teaching as seen in Table 3.1 and in the sample exercises/activities in Table 3.3. In most of those exercises/activities, structures and a few language functions are presented, practiced, and then produced in meaningful activities. Still, a large number of the exercises are used for the purpose of practicing the language for its own sake (see Table 3.3) rather than to perform communicative acts, for example, to request or to apologize. The *Teacher's Guide*, other than providing exercises/activities to practice structures and a few language functions in meaningful activities to achieve accuracy as seen in Table 3.3, also provides activities such as projects, story writing and journal writing, which focus on communication to achieve fluency. It further encourages teachers to use pair and group work as well as individual work (see above). It also encourages a learner-centred method by telling teachers to let pupils guess and try things by themselves to become independent learners. Educationalists (e.g. Johnstone, 1994; Hurrell, 1999) argue that there is a need

to give young learners the chance to be creative with language. Teachers, at least the Education majors, can be expected to understand this idea. As seen in Table 3.3, activities control what pupils need to say, where pupils choose, point, match, or fill in a word or two. Although at the end of the textbook activities move from controlled to guided, control seems more in evidence than guidance.

So far these are some indications that the components might not be working together. Curriculum standards, the benchmarks, competencies, and objectives reflect a learner-centred approach. The textbooks reflect a learner-centred approach but give more emphasis to linguistic structures than communicative functions. The *Teacher's Guide* reflects a learner-centred approach. Achievement tests are form-focused to achieve accuracy rather than fluency, and test reading and written skills separate from listening and speaking skills. Gipps (1994) argues that testing separate components of the language will encourage the teaching and practice of isolated components. The *Teacher's Guide* and the *Curriculum Document*, as discussed above, further state that skills need to be integrated as in real life, and the textbooks integrate skills as seen in Table 3.3 in the various activities. Cameron (2001) argues that assessment can control what to teach instead of the other way round. As Wragg (2001) says, the focus is on what is easily measured instead of what we want children to learn. Projects, story and journal writing mentioned in the *Teacher's Guide*, and which encourage discussion and free writing, are not part of ongoing assessment or achievement tests, as seen in Tables 3.5 and 3.6.

As for the Kuwaiti teacher training programmes, they give teachers enough background knowledge on what to teach and how to teach, including the new curriculum. As for Longman training sessions, only teachers attend while supervisors from the English Inspectorate at the Ministry of Education do not, yet they are the ones who need to follow up teachers in schools, telling them how to teach and test. According to the amount of information provided in training programmes and at the university, teachers should be able to implement a learner-centred method with ease.

3.8.2. What happens in reality?

Teachers in this study, as said above, differ in two ways: in their Education background and in their experience. In relation to their Education background, for the rest of this

thesis they are placed into two groups: those with an Education background and those with no Education background. It is hypothesized that teachers with an Education background will implement a learner-centred method while those with no Education background will have problems doing so. According to their experience, teachers are also put into three groups: those with the most experience (more than ten years), those with the medium experience (five to ten years), and those with the least experience (less than five). The literature suggests that experience plays an important role in teacher development (Hughes, 2001; Castejon & Martinez, 2001; Hogan, Rabinowitz, & Craven, 2003). It is hypothesized that teachers with the most and medium experience would implement a learner-centred method while those with the least experience would not. To find out whether these hypotheses are borne out, classroom observation was conducted to answer these and other questions that are of interest to this study such as: do teachers use communicative activities such as projects, story and journal writing, as stated in the *Teachers' Guide*? Do teachers use group as well as pair work as stated in the *Teacher's Guide*? Do teachers give learners a go at activities to develop self and independent learning, as stated in the *Curriculum Document*? Do teachers correct only when it is necessary, as recommended by the *Teacher's Guide*, or do they overcorrect their pupils' errors? Do teachers teach both form and language functions, or primarily form? What kind of method seems to be implemented; is it a learner-centred method or a language-centred and teacher-centred method? Does the methodology map onto the method/approach stated in the *Teacher's Guide*?

As far as the pre-service and in-service training courses, including the Longman training course discussed above, EFL teachers are well prepared to implement a learner-centred method, i.e. weak CLT. Teachers seem to know a lot, based on the amount of knowledge offered to them in the above programmes; as well as the *Curriculum Document,* with its standards, benchmarks, competencies, and objectives; the *Teacher's Guide* and its guidelines; and the textbook/materials. But how do teachers make use of this knowledge in the classroom? In Chapter Two we discussed studies of EFL countries investigating the methodology used in primary EFL classrooms. Those studies concluded that teachers do not implement CLT, although the curricula state CLT as the main goal. Studies list a number of reasons such as form-focused textbooks, the long curriculum and shortage of time and form-focused exams. Those studies either used questionnaires to investigate teachers' beliefs (Yang, 2000) or questionnaires and interviews (Englezakis, 1998) to

investigate pupils' perceptions about the methodology used, or they used both interview and classroom observation (Al-Khwaiter, 2001; Crawford, 2001) to investigate teachers' beliefs and behaviour. Those studies that used observations and interviews have found a discrepancy between teachers' knowledge and their actual practice (e.g. Al-Khwaiter, 2001). Still, those studies did not look at all the components of EFL delivery and did not look at all components at the same point in time, as the present study intends to do.

The English Inspectorate achievement tests and ongoing assessment guidelines (see Tables 3.5 and 3.6) do not map onto the *Teacher's Guide* sample tests given at the end of the Guide. Those tests map onto the current method proposed by the Guide, i.e. weak CLT or a learner-centred method, as far as the integration of skills. The sample tests, see above, collected from schools as well as from the English Inspectorate, which are also collected from schools, map onto the English Inspectorate guidelines rather than the *Teacher's Guide*. We need to find out if teachers' knowledge as well as their practice matches curriculum goals, the textbook, and the testing system, as they are the actual implementers of the textbook and assessment and hence curriculum goals. Chapters Five and Six will give the final word concerning teachers' knowledge and actual practice, and show whether there are any constraints put on their implementation of a learner-centred method or weak CLT which they have been fully trained to implement. Constraints refer to difficulties that teachers might face that would prevent them from implementing a certain method/approach. For example, in the real world, teaching would involve a set of constraints, such as time, when the curriculum is long and teachers need to cover it to prepare pupils for the exam. Nation (1996), discussed above, advises that time should be taken into consideration in planning any curriculum and mentions a number of other issues which might turn into constraints if not carefully considered, that need to be taken into consideration when planning any curriculum. For example, classroom conditions: the way chairs are arranged with pupils facing the teacher and the teacher at the front directing all interaction is typical of most classrooms but is a constraint against the use of groups and learner-centred discussion. Other constraints include the teacher's competency, the learners' competency, the kind of textbook activities, kind of assessment used, and teacher training provided. It is not possible to know how EFL is really delivered until we look at actual classrooms which we will discuss in Chapter Five, and talk to teachers, which we will discuss in Chapter Six. The next chapter will discuss the methodology used in this thesis to investigate teachers' practice and teachers' knowledge.

Chapter Four

Research Design and Methodology

4.0 Introduction

This study addresses how curriculum goals, the textbook/materials, assessment, and teacher training programmes translate into the classroom. These are all essential factors in an educational programme (Brown, 1995; Nation, 1996; Richards, 2001). We do not yet know what teachers actually do in their classrooms; how they fulfil curriculum goals, teach the textbook, do assessment, and translate the knowledge they received during their teacher training into their classroom practice. To fully answer these questions, we need to find out about teachers' actual practice in the classroom; what teachers' know and believe; and how they perceive their teaching.

Therefore, the next part of this study investigates the following:

1. How do the components of FL delivery, namely textbook/materials, assessment and teacher training, map onto teachers' practices? which specify a CLT-based learner-centred method?
2. Are teachers implementing a CLT-based learner-centred method?
3. Do teachers' beliefs and knowledge map onto their practice and to the other components of FL delivery?
4. Do teachers' perceptions of their own practice match up with their actual practice?

The data were collected by observing teachers in their classrooms and by interviewing them. The reason for choosing classroom observation is that it is seen as the best way of finding out about teachers' actual practice. Interviews are superior to questionnaires in finding out about teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and also values. This chapter explains how decisions were made to collect the data, what data collection methods were used, and how exactly data were collected.

The first section of this chapter discusses the classroom observation; it starts discussing the pilot study classroom observation. A pilot study was conducted to find out what teachers know and understand about CLT and how it is actually implemented in the classroom. It has a discussion of the results followed by a

discussion of the main study of classroom observation. It starts with the participants of the study; who they are and how they were chosen. Next, there is a discussion of the instruments and procedures used for classroom observation, in particular the tool used for collecting classroom observation data: COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) Observation Scheme. It begins with a definition of COLT, how classroom observation was conducted and how the data were analyzed. The second section of the chapter starts to discuss the second instrument used to collect the data for this study, namely the teachers' interview. In this section I start to discuss the pilot study questionnaire and interview results and then go on to discuss the main study interview. I discuss the rationale for choosing structured interviews, the rationale for interview topics and how the interview questions were designed, translated, and administered. The chapter ends with a discussion of the data analysis procedures used for analyzing the interview data.

4.1 Classroom observation

Classroom observation was chosen as a tool to collect data because, according to Gay (1992), it is the only way to get more objective and accurate information about teachers' practices in the classroom than an interview or a questionnaire. Also, as Crowl (1993) says,

> There are numerous forms of behaviour that can best be measured by direct observation rather than by paper and pencil tests or by questionnaires. In education, one of the most common forms of behaviour that is best measured by direct observation is behaviour in a classroom setting. (Crowl, 1993:125).

Not only that but some of the studies (e.g. Al-Khwaiter, 2001) that included classroom observation report that there is inconsistency between what teachers say they are doing, what researchers say is happening and what is actually happening in classrooms.

As far as the methodology is concerned, a qualitative method is used in this study to find out what kind of method are teachers using in their classrooms. The reason for choosing a qualitative method in this research is that qualitative research focuses on discovering truth and underlying meanings (Babbie, 2004). It provides an analytic, theoretical and in-depth description of the phenomena. Another reason is that this

study intends to focus on the context looking for significant meanings. According to Gay (1996) behaviour occurs in a context and to understand the behaviour we need to understand the context in which it occurs. Also, since the aim of this study is to find out what influences teachers' practices in the classroom, only in-depth, detailed classroom observation could provide new insights for understanding teachers' behaviour. Quantitative research, on the other hand, gathers numerical data to explain, predict, or control the phenomenon being investigated (Gay, 1996). Quantitative research will be combined with qualitative research to compensate for respective strengths and weaknesses. Seliger and Shohamy (1989) say that the use of both qualitative and quantitative research in field work is an ideal cyclic process.

As for the observation, it is necessary to assess human skills and behaviour. It allows the collection of detailed and complex information that might not be possible to obtain using other methods such as questionnaires (Genesse and Upshur, 1996). The need to investigate teacher practices and beliefs, according to Woods (1996), stems from thinking that teachers are not transparent entities who fulfil curriculum plans and goals as prescribed by their authors, but who filter, digest, and implement the curriculum depending upon their beliefs and environmental contexts. Also and more importantly, as Ruiz-Funes (2002:3) argues, teachers' "own experiences, beliefs, and practices have not been adequately recorded". Classroom observation becomes vital as it is through the classroom "the prime elements of learning and teaching, ideas and ideologies, policies and plans, methods and materials, learners and teachers- all mix together" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Researchers could be participant observers where they participate in the act that they are describing, or non-participant observers where they observe and take notes of the observed behaviour without taking part in it (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989). In the present study, I am taking the role of a non-participant observer.

4.1.1 Pilot study

The reason for piloting is that it enables the researcher to examine the data collection procedures to avoid problems when the actual research is conducted (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989). Three instruments were used in this pilot study: classroom observation, an interview, and a questionnaire. Qualitative research tries to understand

the phenomena by observing them in their natural settings rather than setting them up for the purpose of the research and can therefore provide us with insights that can not be attained by research such as an experiment or a test (Hammersley, 1998; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). As Kumaravadivelu (2003) states, qualitative methods seek to interpret classroom events rather than just describe them.

The aim of this pilot study was to find out what teachers know about CLT and whether teachers were using a learner-centred method in their teaching. The reason for investigating a learner-centred method was that a learner-centred method, i.e. weak CLT, is thought, according to the literature review, to be the latest and widely used approach worldwide. The assumption was that Kuwait, similar to other countries worldwide, would be using weak CLT at the primary stage. The classroom observation, interview, and questionnaire were set to accomplish this task. CLT was investigated on two levels: firstly, CLT was investigated as an approach or a set of principles about language learning and teaching (see Chapter Two). Within this area I investigated teacher's knowledge about communicative versus linguistic competence; fluency versus accuracy; teaching grammar implicitly; paying attention to the message; and the skills focused on during instruction. Secondly, CLT was investigated as a method relating to the actual activities and teacher and learner roles (see Chapter Two). Within this area I investigated use of L1; activities used to promote real communication; kind of authentic materials used; use of visual aids; use of pair and group work; role of the teacher; and amount of error correction.

The pilot study was conducted in September 2005 to find out whether a learner-centred method was being implemented in EFL primary state schools in Kuwait and to examine teachers' knowledge about it. At that time I had no idea of what method was used in primary schools and the pilot study was conducted to start finding out. One Kuwaiti school was chosen randomly from a group of EFL primary state schools for girls. This school had twelve primary EFL teachers, including the head teacher with varying levels of experience; some had three to seven months of experience, others had two to five years of experience, and the last group had eight to twelve years of experience, which is typical in Kuwaiti state schools. There were three non-Kuwaiti teachers, two from Egypt and one from Jordan. The age range was from 25 to 45 and they either had a BA in English and Primary Education or English and

Literature with no Education background in foreign language teaching. Every year they are allowed to teach two different grades. Some had taught all or most of the grades. Class size was usually between 25 and 30 pupils. Six of the teachers had taken training courses during the last two years on 'language skills', 'computer', 'methodology', 'testing', 'teaching young learners', and 'courses for new teachers'. Before attending schools, I had to get a formal letter of permission from the Ministry of Education in Kuwait addressed to the six educational zones in Kuwait: the Capital City, Hawalli, Al-Farwaniyah, Mubarak Al-Kabeer, Al-Ahmadi, and Al-Jahra. Teachers' consent for the pilot study was taken verbally and they agreed to be observed and interviewed but not recorded. So, I had to take notes during the observation and the interview. Teachers agreed to fill out the questionnaire and give it back to me within two days. To guarantee anonymity of the data I explained to the teachers that it would only be used by me.

As a non-participant observer, I observed ten teachers' lessons (the head teacher does not teach and one teacher apologized that she could not be observed due to unforeseen circumstances), at four different grade levels. I developed an observation checklist, the content of which was taken from CLT principles described in Richards and Rodgers (2001). It consisted of sixteen items to observe in teachers' behaviour (see below for the classroom observation checklist). During the lesson, detailed notes were taken of the steps of the lesson as followed by the teacher, with emphasis on the method used. The observation checklist was filled in immediately after the lesson to make sure nothing was missed.

4.1.1.1 Pilot study classroom observation results

The following table presents the checklist that I designed to observe teachers. The first column lists Communicative Language Teaching principles that were used as a criterion to measure teachers' behaviour whether towards a learner-centred communicative method or a language-centred method. The next two columns were used to check whether teachers implemented those principles or not. So, if the principle is seen used, I put a check in the 'Yes' column, if not I put a check in the 'No' column. So, for every teacher, I check whether they implemented this principle or not. The last column was used to take down further notes about anything interesting or

important regarding behaviour (see below). Table 4.1 below is a summary of the results. The numbers represent the number of the teachers.

This checklist was filled in immediately after the classroom observation. I was careful to take notes of most of what was happening in the classroom. After that I went back over the notes before I filled in the checklist.

Table 4.1 Pilot Study Classroom Observation Checklist

Teacher behaviour	N=10 Yes	N=10 No	Details
Using L1 a lot	1	9	It is sometimes used when L2 fails
Correcting all errors	10	0	All teachers correct errors
Teaching grammar explicitly	0	10	Implicitly through examples, repetition, and role-play
Activities promote real communication	0	10	Teachers use display questions to practice vocabulary and structure
Using various techniques for presentation of vocabulary	10	0	Flashcards, pictures, wall charts, and examples
Paying attention to the message	10	0	Both language and message
Encourage students to communicate in L2	9	1	Using routines and instructions in English
Dominate classroom activities	10	0	Teachers control, initiate activities, and provide feedback
Using teaching aids	10	0	Flashcards, pictures, wall charts, tape recorder, masks, etc.
Activities focus on one skill	0	10	Mainly listening and speaking and a few reading and writing.
Focus on grammar and writing	0	10	Little writing and grammar is taught implicitly
Focus on speaking and listening	10	0	Mainly question and answer and role play (mechanical drills)
Correcting grammatical errors only	0	10	Pronunciation, grammar, and meaning
Using pair and group work	7	3	Sometimes and mainly pair work
Using translation to teach vocabulary	2	8	If students fail to understand the meaning
Teacher and students use authentic language not known to both	0	10	Questions are usually display or practiced before with students

In spite of the above, the picture might not be complete as the categories are fixed and therefore limit what to observe and summarize the teacher's general behaviour rather than focus on what happens in the classroom as far as the activities used. It notes whether a certain behaviour occurs or not, but does not go deeper into investigating each activity. It does not calculate the time spent on each activity to show how much

of the total classroom time is spent on which activity, and why. This would help to show whether the classroom is learner-centred or language-centred. The teacher might focus on form and function but spend more than half of the classroom time on form. Would she be learner-centred or language-centred?

The results show teachers correct errors a lot and use activities that do not promote communication, which suggests that they dominate classroom activities no matter what their Education background or their experience. At the same time, teachers were using the L2 a lot. They taught grammar implicitly, although they focus on listening and speaking skills more than reading and writing. This created the need to investigate the matter further to find out more about teachers' practice and the method used.

4.1.2 Main study

To answer the questions set at the beginning of this Chapter, two tools were used to collect the data, classroom observation using COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) Observation Scheme and a structured interview. The next section will discuss the participants of the study.

4.1.2.1 Participants

The number of teachers used in this study was twenty-three. All were female Kuwaiti teachers of English as a foreign language teaching primary grade four in state schools in Kuwait. The same teachers were observed and interviewed. All teachers in the study are female as it is more convenient for a woman in an eastern society to observe and interview female teachers. Kuwaiti nationals were chosen because one of the elements investigated by this study was teacher training programmes provided by Kuwait University. Teachers from other nationalities would have received a different pre-service training program in their countries, as noted in Chapter Three. Fourth grade pupils were chosen because at the time of the study older pupils were still using the Emirates textbook, younger pupils would only have learned English for one or two years and would not show many signs of fluency.

After I got my letter of permission, I contacted the Department of Statistic Analysis at the Ministry of Education to find out the percentage of Kuwaiti female teachers who

are university graduates and teaching primary female pupils. According to the latest statistical analysis available (2005-2006) which is sent to the Department of Statistic Analysis from the Information Centre, which is responsible for sending detailed information about schools through the Ministry of Education computer network to the Department of Statistic Analysis, the number of female Kuwaiti teachers who were university graduates and were teaching English as a foreign language to female primary pupils was 580. Teachers were found to fit into three groups according to experience: those below five years (369) constituting 63.6% of the total number of teachers (Kuwaiti university female primary teachers teaching English as a foreign language to female primary pupils at state schools in Kuwait), those from five to ten years (153) constituting 26.4% of the total number of teachers, and those above ten years of experience (58) constituting 10% of the total number of teachers. Another area in which teachers also differ is whether they graduated from the faculty of Education or from the faculty of English and Literature. According to the latest statistical analysis available (2004-2005), the percentage of those with BA in Education is 67% (291 teachers) and the percentage of those with BA in English and Literature is 33% (145 teachers). This is taken from 436 Kuwaiti university female primary teachers teaching English as a foreign language to female primary pupils at state schools in Kuwait according to that year. Because this year's information was not available, I had to base the numbers of teachers on last year's percentages.

After that, the percentage of experience of the three groups was calculated to see how many teachers it would represent in the initial whole sample of 20 teachers, i.e. how many teachers of each group need to be included in the sample to be representative of the population of Kuwaiti female university teachers teaching English to female primary school children at state schools in Kuwait. I wanted my sample to be representative of the population from which it was selected. Therefore, I used stratified sampling. Stratified sampling is defined by Gay (1992) as

> the process of selecting a sample in such a way that identified subgroups in the population are represented in the sample in the same proportion that they exist in the population. (1992:129)

So, for those with less than five years experience I would need 12.72%; 13 teachers. For those from five to ten years of experience I would need 5.27%; five teachers. For those above ten years of experience I would need 2%; two teachers. All these

calculations were done by an expert from the Statistics Analysis Department at the Ministry of Education and the information, i.e. the raw numbers, were derived from their computer files where they keep all the information about teachers and update them regularly. The same was done for those majoring in Education and those majoring in English and Literature. For those with BA in Education I needed 13.35%; 13 teachers, which is based on the latest statistical analysis available (2004-2005) and for those with BA in English and Literature I needed 6.65%; 7 teachers.

As said above, I started with 20 teachers and I planned my study accordingly, however, during my data collection I found that the least group represented in the sample was the high-experienced group (2 teachers). I needed to include more teachers with high experience to be able to compare the three groups, so I added three more, giving an overall total of 23 teachers. Another reason for adding these teachers was to be able to compare similar numbers of teachers in both groups, those with high and intermediate experience (5 with high and 5 with intermediate experience). I ended up with 15 teachers with an Education background and 8 teachers with no education background. So, 23 teachers was the size of my final sample.

From the list of schools I randomly chose five from every one of the six educational zones.[3] I randomly chose five schools.[4] I wanted to get four teachers from every educational zone but this would mean ending up with 24 teachers. So, I had to take four teachers from every educational zone and three teachers from one educational zone.

I contacted schools and met with teachers. I met with every teacher before conducting classroom observations with the presence of either the headmistress or the head teacher. Teachers were told of the research procedures and their verbal consent was taken. Teachers' written consent was taken at the end of the study by signing a formal consent form made by me explaining classroom observation and interview procedures (see Appendix 7 for a copy of the consent form). The reason that teachers' formal signature was not taken at the beginning of the study was not to alarm teachers as they

[3] The Capital City, Hawalli, Al-Farwaniyah, Mubarak Al-Kapeer, Al-Ahmadi, and Al-Jahraa
[4] I thought I would find at least one Kuwaiti teacher teaching grade four in each one of those schools although it does not always work and that is why I choose five schools

were anxious that an outsider was going to evaluate them. Teachers were always notified a week ahead of my visit to their classrooms.

4.1.2.2 Rationale for choosing COLT Observation Scheme

The Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) Observation Scheme was used as the measuring instrument for this study (see appendix 8 for a copy of COLT Observation Scheme part A). It is used to measure whether teachers' behaviour is learner-centred or language-centred based on the time teachers spent on the different COLT categories and their subcategories discussed below. The rationale for choosing COLT is that the different categories within COLT focus on issues taken from the main principles of the Communicative Approach i.e. a learner/learning-centred method, that, if put together, would give a clear picture of how communicative or learner-centred primary EFL classrooms are in Kuwait. It will help to show whether the classrooms are learner-centred, language-centred, or both. It also makes it easy to quantify the data by calculating the amount of time spent on each activity from total classroom time. It has also been reported by other researchers investigating classroom practices (Spada & Lightbown, 1989; Zotou, 1993; Fazio & Lyster, 1998; Flyman-Mattson, 1999) as being suitable for such a study and has been reported successful. It is also flexible as you can add and delete categories as the need arises (see Spada and Frohlich, 1995).

4.1.2.2.1 Definition of COLT categories

Before talking about the actual procedures taken to conduct the classroom observation, there is a need to define the tool used. The COLT Observation Scheme consists of two parts: Part 'A' is about classroom activities, i.e. what teachers and students are doing in the classroom; part 'B' is about teacher-pupil interaction, i.e. what teachers and pupils are saying (see below). This is the main reason for choosing COLT part A as I am interested in teachers' behaviour in being the implementers of curriculum goals, materials, and assessment. It will also help us find out how teachers are trained to implement these elements. The interest of this study is mainly with implementation of a learner-centred method where the COLT categories of part 'A', as will be seen below, help to show whether the classroom is learner-centred or language-centred. Categories include: participant organization, content, content

control, student modality, and materials. For example, the categories start with 'Participant Organization' which refers to the way the students are organized (Spada and Frohlich, 1995). There are three patterns of organization: 'Class', 'Group', and 'Individual'. 'Class' refers to activities directed by the teacher where the teacher interacts with the whole class or with individual students. It also applies to activities led by a student to another student or a student to class. Finally, it applies to whole class or individual groups in choral work. 'Group' refers to activities done in groups. 'Individual' refers to activities where students work alone. The subcategory 'same task/different task' does not apply as students always perform the same activities, so it was deleted for this study.

The second category is 'Content' which refers to the subject matter of activities i.e. what the teacher and students say, read, write or listen to. Two areas are defined: Language and Other topics (Spada and Frohlich, 1995:16). Language is further divided into: 'Form', 'Function', 'Discourse' and 'Sociolinguistic'. 'Form' covers grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, and punctuation; 'Function' constitutes communicative functions such as requesting, apologizing, and explaining; 'Discourse' is how sentences are combined in a cohesive and coherent way, such as describing a process, e.g. what students did when they visited the moon (Spada and Frohlich, 1995:17), and 'Sociolinguistic' is style appropriate to particular contexts (Spada and Frohlich 1995). 'Sociolinguistic' does not apply to primary nine year old learners so it was not included. A new category called 'Other' is added by me to account for other activities that do not fit under those categories such as 'listening to a dialogue/text', 'singing', 'reading silently', 'oral presentation', 'explaining procedure', and 'Set book/comprehension questions'. 'Other topics', which is divided into 'Narrow' and 'Broad' topics, is deleted because a learner-centred method is not confined to broad topics. The category 'Management' includes 'Procedure' and 'Discipline'. 'Procedure' is put by me with 'Content' under 'Other'. 'Discipline' is deleted because no time was spent on it.

According to Spada and Frohlich (1995), 'Content control' refers to who chooses the topic or task which is the focus of instruction. It is divided into three subcategories: 'Teacher/text', 'Teacher/Text/Student' and 'Student'. 'Teacher/Text' is when the topic/task is decided by the teacher and/or the text. 'Teacher/Text/Student' is when the

topic/task is decided by teacher, students, and the text. 'Student' is when the topic is decided by the students (Spada and Frohlich, 1995).

'Student Modality' refers to the skills involved in a classroom activity. It focuses on what the students are doing with regard to the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. It is subdivided into a category for each of those skills. The fifth category is 'Other' which is for when students are drawing or colouring. I added two categories: 'Combination with speaking' when speaking is combined with other skills; and 'Other combinations', which is coded when skills other than speaking are combined together. The reason for these subdivisions is that skills under a traditional approach are usually separated, whereas a learner-centred method, would integrate them. A communicative approach would further emphasize speaking over other skills.

'Materials' describes classroom materials and is subdivided into: 'Type of material' and 'Source of material'. Spada and Frohlich (1995) further divide 'Type of material' into: 'Text', which itself is divided into 'Minimal' and 'Extended'; 'Audio'; and 'Visual'. 'Minimal' refers to written text where word lists, captions, and isolated sentences are used. 'Extended' refers to longer written text such as stories, dialogues, connected sentences and paragraphs and 'Audio' refers to listening to recorded material (Spada and Frohlich, 1995). 'Visual' refers to pictures, flashcards, posters, and wall charts. 'Source of Material' does not apply as all material is made for non-native speakers. Still, the category 'material' was excluded from this study because first, I believe that materials, whatever their subdivisions are, do not determine whether teachers are learner-centred or non learner-centred. Savignon (2002) argued that even without authentic materials a teacher can still teach communicatively, as it depends on the teacher's understanding of CLT and how CLT happens. Second, teachers would use more text and visual than audio as most of the material is text and visual such as flashcards, picture cards, and wall charts including the blackboard, the textbook, and worksheets. Most classroom interaction is minimal and it is not seen by me as a suitable criterion for categorizing teachers into learner or non learner-centred.

COLT part 'B' is about teachers' and students' verbal interaction. It is divided into two sections: teacher verbal interaction and student verbal interaction. For teacher verbal interaction, categories include: target language off task; target language on task;

information gap; sustained speech; and reaction to form/message. As this study is interested in finding out whether teachers implement a learner-centred method or not at the macro level, i.e. teachers' behaviour as to how exercises and activities are conducted in the classroom, and not at the micro level, i.e. teacher/pupil verbal interaction, I decided not to use COLT part B for reasons that are thoroughly discussed in Chapter Five. COLT will function in this study, as stated above, as a criterion to measure whether teachers are using a learner-centred method or a language-centred method. Learner-centred or language-centred behaviour was operationally defined by the time teachers spent on each COLT category and its subcategories.

Validity in qualitative research is "the degree to which observations accurately reflect what was observed" and allow for accurate interpretation of the narrative data (Gay, 1996:217). Validity and reliability of the classroom observation data is controlled for: first the COLT categories and subcategories reflect basic principles of a communicative approach identified in the literature and agreed upon by the proponents of CLT (Littlewood, 1984; Widdowson, 1990; Savignon, 2002; Klapper, 2006). Second, the same topics discussed in COLT are also discussed in the interview below which helps in cross-referencing the data. And third, the implementation of two kinds of observations: an open observation, which will be discussed below, where extensive, detailed notes were taken of what went on in the classroom, and a structured observation (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989) using the COLT Observation Scheme where checks were made under the different categories. Also classroom observations were tape recorded to triangulate the data and cross-check it.

4.1.2.3 Conducting classroom observation

The first classroom observation was used as a pilot. Piloting helped me to test my ability to take detailed notes of what was going on in the classroom because the COLT Observation Scheme was not used during classroom observation. The reason for that is first, it would be distracting me from what was going on in the classroom at the time. Second, there were many categories that one researcher would find it hard to follow alone. Third, I was anxious not to miss anything that was going on at the time. However, the COLT Observation Scheme was filled in immediately after the lesson

ended with the help of the tape recorder and the detailed classroom notes to make sure that all the information was coded. Also, the tape recorder would not be able to record everything that went on in the classroom, such as teachers' gestures or body language: visual aids used; teachers' writing on the board. Piloting was also a good way of testing my tape recorder in terms of the sound quality and the COLT Observation Scheme categories. It was useful to see the kind of activities used to revise the COLT categories, keep the relevant ones and discard those that were not seen to be used by the teachers or do not apply to EFL classrooms in Kuwait or to young learners.

During my classroom observations I used an AIWA cassette recorder TP-VS450 with a voice sensor system and a flat microphone, with a good sound quality, to be able to pick up most of what was happening in the classroom. A tape recorder was used instead of video recording as the Kuwaiti teachers refused to be video recorded. Also Spada and Frohlich (1995) had reported in their book, *COLT Observation Scheme*, other studies (e.g. Zotou, 1993) using audio recordings, and reported that it was more convenient to use a tape recorder as it was easier to use, had better sound quality and it was easier to code the different categories in COLT.

I acted as a non-participant observer. I did not interact with the pupils or the teacher at any time during the lesson. I took down some notes of the activities that would be impossible to capture through a tape recorder alone, such as if the teacher is using gestures or body language, or if the teacher is using a visual aid or writing on the board. I took notes of the steps of the lesson as to what the teacher and pupils were doing with the aid of a digital clock which made it possible for me to calculate the amount of time spent on every activity: the time was recorded from the beginning of the lesson and for every activity. The tape recorder was used to record what the teachers and pupils said during those activities as it is impossible to take notes of everything.

I also made sure not to miss any information as lessons were tape recorded from the beginning of the class, as I entered with or before the teacher so not to distract the pupils' attention. The tape recorder was stopped after the bell rang and the teacher gave farewell to her pupils. After that, I filled in the COLT Observation Scheme based on my notes and the recorded material.

Twenty three primary EFL classes were observed twice, a total of 46 classroom observations. With each period lasting for 40 minutes, this came to a total of 1840 minutes (about 31 hours) of observation time spread across the 46 classrooms. The reason for conducting two classroom observations for every teacher was to control for observer effect as it makes it possible to detect changes in behaviour from one observation to the other. I also wanted to see if there were patterns and to give myself the opportunity to see a wider span of activities than just one observation would have shown. It also increases the reliability of the information obtained as well as the judgments concerning teachers' behaviour (Genesee and Upshur, 1996). Teachers were observed over a total period of eleven weeks. Fourteen primary schools for girls participated in the study. All classrooms were grade four. There were about 30 pupils per classroom who attended school five days a week over an eight month instructional period (two terms from September to December and again from February to May). As stated above, every teacher was observed twice and a week was left between the first observation and the second for three reasons: first, to observe how teachers and pupils handle different themes in the syllabus. In Spada and Frohlich (1995) other researchers, such as Spada (1987) who used COLT in her study to observe classrooms, left one week interval between one classroom observation and the next for the same reason. Second, it was impossible to leave more than a week between a classroom observation and the other because there were many classroom observations to conduct (46 total) and I needed to finish the classroom observations before pupils started their final exams at the end of May and started their summer vacation in June. Knowing this, I started collecting the data at the beginning of March. It took me a total of three months to collect my data. A third reason is that teachers usually have exams in other days which usually take the whole classroom time.

4.1.2.4 Analysis of classroom observation

4.1.2.4.1 Data Analysis procedures

After I had the data ready for analysis, I went through the detailed observation notes of every one of the classroom observations along with the 31 hours of taped material and filled in any missing data in the notes to make sure I did not miss any important data. Then, using the detailed observation notes, I listed the main activities that went on during the lesson for every one of the teachers to make sure all the activities were

coded. Then for every activity I would check (✓) the relevant category in COLT, for example, when students were answering comprehension questions on the reading and according to 'Participant Organization' (as discussed above, there are three categories 'Class', 'Group', and 'Individual'. Class is subdivided into 'T-S/C' (Teacher to Student or to Class), 'S-S/C' (Student to Student or to Class) and 'Choral'). I put a check mark under the category 'Class' and under 'T-S/C' as the activity is a whole class activity led by the teacher where the teacher asks individual students to answer the questions. This is done for every activity. Then I would count the time spent on every activity under the relevant category. I recorded the time at the beginning of every new activity, if the first activity started at 9:05 and the next activity started at 9:10 then the first activity took five minutes of classroom time. After I went over all the list of activities and put all the check marks under the relevant categories according to the COLT Observation Scheme I calculated the time spent under each category and for every sub-category and activity (see above). I then divided the minutes spent on every activity by the total classroom time, multiplied by one hundred to get a percentage of the time spent doing that activity, as a whole classroom activity under the category 'T-S/C'. For example, five minutes on an activity, divided by the total classroom time of forty minutes, multiplied by one hundred produces a percentage of 12.5%.

For some of the categories in COLT such as 'Content', for example, I had to decide where I would fit 'other activities' seen during classroom observation and would not fit under the subcategories 'Form', 'Function', and 'Discourse'. So, as I said above, I added the category 'Other' to record them. For example, the activity 'reading silently' would not fit under 'Form' or 'Function' or 'Discourse' and therefore needed a separate category so I put it under the category 'Other'. This made the coding more accurate as to account for all the activities as well as the kind of activities that went on in the classroom.

The same with the category 'Student Modality', as discussed before, I needed to account for the subcategories 'Combination with speaking' and 'Other combinations'. COLT provided separate categories for the four skills (as discussed above). The four skills are coded in combination most of the time so I had to account for those instances. The same procedures above, as to how the data is coded, were followed to make sure all the data was coded as accurately as possible, as well as all the minutes.

and to make clear what COLT is trying to show as far as this thesis is concerned. I needed to not only use COLT, but to show how COLT can be used to answer the research questions set at the beginning of this study, i.e. whether teachers' behaviour is learner-centred or not based on the time teachers' spent on the COLT categories and their subcategories.

The main goal of the analysis is to detect the significant differences between teachers with respect to learner-centred or language-centred as a teaching method. The criteria used to determine the learner-centred group and the language-centred group are the following COLT subcategories (Spada & Frohlich, 1995):

- **Participant Organization**

This has the following COLT subcategories:-

T-S/C: The teacher is controlling all classroom activity talking to individual students and to the whole class.
S-S/C: A student is talking to another student or to the whole class.
Choral
Group
Individual

- **Content**

This has the following COLT subcategories:-

Form
Function
Discourse
Listening/dialogue/text
Singing
Reading silently
Oral presentation
Explaining procedure
Set book/comprehension questions

- **Content Control**

This has the following COLT subcategories:-

Teacher/Text
Teacher/Text/Student
Student

- **Student Modality**

This has the following COLT subcategories:-

Listening
Speaking
Reading
Writing
Combination with speaking
Other combination

The sample size of teachers is less than 30, so in this case we do not make any assumptions about the distribution of the population being sampled, therefore, the variable of interest has free distribution and the non-parametric techniques are good tools to use for this analysis. The contribution of the analytical part is to detect the significant differences between COLT subcategories in each of the COLT category divisions, with respect to the length of time spent by each teacher on each COLT subcategory. The objective is to determine the teaching method as learner-centred or language-centred for each of the COLT category divisions based on sample information. The first tool used is the Friedman Test which is a one way analysis of variance for paired data: a case with several related samples, where observations of all COLT subcategories from one source of data (sample of teachers) are considered as related samples. Observations are the length of time spent by each teacher for each COLT subcategory.

The second tool is the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test, the case of matched-pair data, where each sample of observation is considered as the difference on time spent on each pair of COLT subcategories by each group of teachers with different backgrounds of education and experience. The objective is to detect the real differences on the amount of time spent on each pair of the COLT subcategories.

The third tool is the Kruskal-Wallis Test, a case of several independent samples, where each sample of observations for each COLT subcategories is drawn from three independent populations as follows:

1st population is most experienced teachers
2nd population is medium experienced teachers
3rd population is least experienced teachers

This is to detect the significant differences between COLT subcategories among COLT category divisions of experience only with respect to the length of time spent by each teacher for each COLT subcategory. The objective is looking for the

contribution of experience in determining the teaching approach as learner-centred or language-centred for each of the COLT category divisions based on sample information.

The Mann-Whitney Test is the fourth and last tool used which is a case of two independent samples, where each sample of observations for each of the COLT subcategories is drawn from two independent populations as follows:

1st population is teachers with Education background
2nd population is teachers with no Education background

This is to detect the significant differences between COLT subcategories among COLT category divisions of an Education background only with respect to the length of time spent by each teacher for each COLT subcategory. The objective is to look for the contribution of an Education background in determining the teaching approach as learner-centred or language-centred for each COLT category divisions based on sample information.

4.1.2.4.2 Rationale for using quantitative and qualitative analysis

Seliger and Shohamy (1989:118) gave a definition of qualitative research saying that:

> Qualitative methods originally developed from the methodologies of field anthropologists and sociologists concerned with studying human behavior within the context in which that behavior would occur naturally and in which the role of the researcher would not affect the normal behavior of the subjects.

This kind of method is suitable when describing or discovering second language acquisition in its natural context. Since this study is interested in finding out about what goes on in primary EFL classrooms in Kuwait and how this finding would contribute to the research questions posed in Chapter One, it is seen as necessary to conduct a qualitative study. In qualitative research, according to Liamputtong and Ezzy (2005), researchers immerse themselves in the data through reading and rereading interviews and observations. The result of such immersion is a new understanding of the data. Also, because the data is collected from different sources using different techniques, such as interviews, observations, tapes of recorded material, documents, classroom materials, and field notes, qualitative research can provide insights that are not easy to get through research methods that use a single

approach to data collection such as an experiment or a test. Also the multiple sources of data can make it easy to validate and triangulate the data and also control for subjectivity. Davis (1995) says that one strength of qualitative research is the rich descriptions of context such as classrooms and schools that are familiar in a general sense from personal experience.

Quantitative methods, on the other hand, present the data in numerical form and make use of statistics. Quantification of qualitative data is possible, advisable, and necessary to be able to make generalizations about the data to other contexts. Henning (1986:702) states that:

> Without some resource to quantitative methods, some marriage of words and numbers, it is inconceivable that the investigation of language acquisition will ever be said to belong to the realm of scientific inquiry.

For Henning, quantitative analysis helps the researcher go beyond the data and generalize to other areas of study. Other researchers using qualitative methods have realized this need to quantify their data (Spada, 1987; Flyman-Mattsson, 1999). Davis (1995) further says that researchers should choose an approach in light of the purpose of the study. For the purpose of this study and the nature of the research questions, there is a need to use both qualitative and quantitative methods of analysis. There is a need to really understand what is going on in EFL primary classrooms in Kuwait without interfering or controlling events but to see them developing naturally and to be able to record them. There is also the need to give extensive and detailed description of teachers' behaviour to give as accurate a picture as possible of what goes on in EFL primary classrooms in Kuwait. Quantitative analysis makes it possible not only to quantify the data but to generalize it. It makes it easy to compare the data with other similar studies, draw conclusions, and make more accurate judgments.

I made the decision to combine both observations so not to miss any important data. Also, I wanted to see if there were patterns and to give myself the chance to look at as many activities as possible, more than one observation would have provided. The data is analyzed quantitatively by applying multiple tests such as the Friedman Test (a one way analysis of variance for paired data), the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test, the Mann-Whiteny Test (a case with two independent samples) and the Kruskal Wallis Test (a

case with several independent samples). The data is also analyzed qualitatively by describing and discussing the data from the observation notes, taped material and other formal documents. This method of analysis would hopefully give a more accurate picture of what goes on in the classroom. Other researchers such as Al-Kuwaiter (2001), who was interested in finding out how communicative Qatari classrooms were, used a different approach where he calculated the percentage of the number of times a certain behaviour occurred in the eighteen classrooms that he observed. Although this procedure is widely used (e.g. Goumandakoye, 1992; Al-Mutawa and Al-Dabbous, 1997; Al-Mutawa, 2003) it only shows whether a certain behaviour existed or not and how often; it does not show how much time was spent on an activity or task. According to this study there is a need to find out the amount of time pupils spend on task to be able to calculate how much time is spent on each activity from the total classroom time. The reason is that in a communicative classroom more time is usually devoted to aural/oral skills, group and pair work as well as games and role-plays, and student participation.

4.2 Questionnaire

The questionnaire is only used for the pilot study for reasons that I will explain below. Genesee and Upshur (1996) note that questionnaires

> are most useful when employed periodically and when relatively systematic and uniform feedback is desired from students, parents, or teachers-for example, before instruction begins and at the end of major units of instruction or an entire course of instruction. At these times, the information they provide is valuable for planning and assessing whole courses or units. (1996:127)

They add that if they are structured, questionnaires can be easily quantified. An advantage of questionnaires over interviews is that they can be administrated to a bigger sample at one time and are less time consuming (Gay, 1992). Genesee and Upshur further say that questionnaires provide concrete and fixed records of subjects' answers.

4.2.1 Pilot study questionnaire

A questionnaire was needed since teachers refused to be recorded during the interview and during classroom observation. Another reason for using questionnaires is to

compare the observation and interview data with the questionnaire data to triangulate the data to get as accurate data as possible of what was going on in primary EFL classrooms in Kuwait. However. questionnaires were not used for the main study as I encountered problems with them during the pilot where teachers did not give enough information to satisfy my interest and some of them either forgot to do them or were hesitant to fill them in, being too busy. And since I was interested in getting as accurate answers as possible and enough data, I saw the need to exclude questionnaires from my main study. Another reason is that I only had 23 teachers as my sample; questionnaires are usually used with a large number of people.

4.2.1.1 Pilot study questionnaire results

The structured questionnaire for the pilot was conducted at the beginning of the school year. Questionnaire parts were developed by me and investigated CLT principles and the other parts were adopted from Al-Khwaiter's PhD study (2001) and Al-Mutawa's (2003) study to find out how much teachers know about CLT, whether they implement it in their classrooms, and what problems they face in teaching English communicatively to young learners (see below for the questionnaire). The first section of the questionnaire asked for background information about teachers' age, experience, degree, and in-service training. The second section asked teachers about their knowledge and application of a learner-centred method. The third section asked teachers about their ideas and beliefs about foreign language teaching in general. The fourth and last section contained five open-ended questions on similar issues. Teachers were handed in the questionnaire and after a few days it was collected by me. All twelve teachers answered the questionnaire. The next section will present and discuss the pilot study results in relation to the questionnaire.

I was interested to know how teachers felt towards teaching English using a learner-centred method. Twelve teachers completed the questionnaire.

Table 4.2 Pilot study questionnaire results for CLT

Statements	Strongly don't agree	Don't agree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	No answer
The four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing should be taught separately	1	4	2	4	1	-
People learn L2 through communication	-	2	2	2	6	-
Communication should be encouraged from the beginning and not after a long period of drills and exercise	-	-	-	3	9	-
Language learning is learning to communicate	-	-	4	7	1	-
People learn L2 through instruction in grammar	-	-	8	2	2	-
L1 should not be used so often	-	-	1	3	8	-
Language learning is learning structures, sounds, and words	1	-	2	6	3	-
Teaching language is learned best through struggling to communicate and not through over teaching of patterns of the system	-	1	3	5	3	-
Adults learn L2 through instruction in grammar	1	2	3	5	1	-
Communicative competence is the desired goal and not linguistic competence	1	5	5	-	1	-
Sequencing material according to linguistic complexity and not according to content, function, or meaning that maintains interest	-	2	2	5	3	-
Adults learn L2 through communication	-	-	1	8	3	-
All errors should be corrected, especially those that are related to form	-	2	-	4	6	-
Children learn L2 through instruction in grammar	2	2	5	1	1	1
Fluency is the goal and not formal accuracy	1	4	2	3	2	-
Students are encouraged to interact through pair and group work	-	-	1	3	8	-
Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process	-	-	-	5	7	-
Correcting all students' errors is useless	6	3	1	1	-	1
Children learn L2 through communication	-	-	-	6	6	-

Results show teachers to agree on some of CLT principles. For example, all twelve teachers agree that children learn their L2 through communication and should be encouraged from the beginning and not after a long period of drills and exercise. Eleven of them agree that group/pair work activities are useful. However, eight of the

teachers believe that material should be sequenced according to linguistic complexity rather than content/meaning. Teachers were split as to whether skills should be taught in combination or separately. Six teachers agree that linguistic competence should be the desired goal and not communicative competence. They split again when deciding whether fluency should be the goal or formal accuracy. It seems that some teachers have their own beliefs about how language teaching and learning should be conducted, whether according to a learner-centred method which, as discussed in Chapter Two, aims for both accuracy and fluency, integrates the four skills as in real life and aims for linguistic and communicative competence, or a language-centred method which aims for accuracy at the expense of fluency. In the next section I was interested to know teachers' feelings towards teaching/learning English as a foreign language.

Table 4.3 Pilot Study questionnaire results for TEFL

Statements	Strongly don't agree	Don't agree	neutral	agree	Strongly agree	No answer
Grammar should be taught with lots of drilling and exercises	-	-	-	7	5	-
Vocabulary is only taught through translation	4	6	1	1	-	-
English should be taught in the primary grade	1	-	1	4	6	-
Using L1 in the classroom deprives students from target language input	-	-	-	4	8	-
It is difficult to implement new methods because of children's little knowledge of English	1	6	-	4	1	-
Listening to English is not enough to learn it, to practice speaking English is important to learn it	-	-	-	6	6	-
Teaching English to a six-year old child is hard	2	3	3	4	-	-

Results show that seven of the teachers believe that new methods could be implemented with children no matter what their background knowledge is and all teachers saw the need to teach grammar through lots of drilling and practice. This matches with all previous results.

Teachers' opinions about teaching English as a foreign language in the primary stage were elicited by open-ended questions

1. What do you think are the problems that your pupils are having in learning English as a foreign language and why do you think they have those problems?

Eleven teachers listed different reasons behind the problems that their pupils are having such as, pupils do not have enough vocabulary to keep a conversation going, some pupils are not motivated to learn English, the long curriculum, pupils are having problems speaking English as they do not practice English outside the classroom, and pupils are unable to use English communicatively as they are not speaking or listening to English outside the classroom.

2. Do you think that the way English is taught in the primary stage is satisfactory and why do you think so?

Nine teachers agree that the way English is taught in the primary stage today is a lot better than before as they have a new curriculum and are using new methods in teaching, i.e. weak CLT. They report advantages such as that pupils are learning English better as there are different ways of presenting the material that grasps the pupils' attention and interest. Pupils learn grammar implicitly and there is focus on listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Three teachers think that there are problems with the teaching methods for the primary stage. They also say that some of the methods used are old and the modern ones are not satisfactory as they do not fulfil the objectives of teaching English in the primary stage.

3. Do you think pupils who learned English in the primary stage are better than those who started learning English in the intermediate stage and why?

All teachers agreed that pupils who learned English in the primary stage are better than those who started to learn it in the intermediate stage as it gives the pupil the chance to learn English for a longer time and to understand it better.

4. What problems or difficulties do you face in the classroom as a result of teaching English to children?

Teachers reported problems such as, class size, the long curriculum and not enough time to practice every skill. Pupils are weak in reading and writing and some pupils are weak in listening comprehension, as they do not understand the teacher when she speaks in English.

5. Do you have any questions, concerns, or anything you would like to add that is not included in this questionnaire?

Teachers said that there is a need to teach English at kindergarten and learning English won't take place unless students are in contact with native speakers.

Question 1 summarizes the suggested constraints on CLT implementation such as pupils not having enough vocabulary, and pupils have problems communicating and understanding what is said to them, as lack of practice outside the classroom. Question two reflects teachers' opinion about the actual method used and most teachers (nine) are pleased with the method as they integrate the four skills and teach grammar implicitly while three teachers think that some of the methods are old and useless and the new method is not satisfactory. Overall, teachers liked the new method but reported a number of constraints. This created the need for me to thoroughly investigate what exactly the method used in Kuwaiti primary classrooms is. This created the need for a more developed technique for conducting classroom observation as well as a more detailed interview.

4.3 Teachers' interview

Interviews allow in-depth information gathering and flexibility where the researcher can probe for information that is impossible to obtain by any other method (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989; Gay, 1996). The pilot study used a structured interview which consisted of twelve questions about Communicative Language Teaching, such as using group work, using information-gap activities, correcting errors, using audio-visual aids, and teaching grammar. These were translated into Arabic to make sure teachers understood them (see below for interview questions). The same ten teachers in the pilot study who were observed were also interviewed individually. Teachers' responses were written while they spoke as they refused to be tape recorded. Classroom observation compared teachers' practices with what they said in the interview.

4.3.1 Pilot Study

4.3.1.1 Pilot study Interview results

I asked the teachers their opinion about the present curriculum and nine of them said that the curriculum is not long, but is overloaded with vocabulary and structures, and is full of knowledge that needs time to teach. They all agreed that there is enough oral work through question and answer techniques and during oral presentation. Six of the teachers also agreed that the amount of memorization is normal and is needed for vocabulary, structures, and textbook content. They all agreed that pupils have enough

listening practice. Nine of them said that the amount of testing is adequate, however, two of them said that they do not like the way tests are set as they do not evaluate the students' real abilities, for example, no creative writing or teaching them how to write.

The following table introduces the pilot study interview data. Ten teachers were interviewed.

Table 4.4 Pilot study interview results

No.	Questions	Teachers (N=10)	Responses
1.	How often do you use group and pair work activities in your classroom? Why?	8	-don't use group work and use little pair work -reasons -a waste of time, pupils hard to control and use their L1
2.	How important is the teaching of grammar in learning a foreign language?	10	-agree that teaching grammar is essential -it is needed for writing and speaking good English
3.	How often do you correct students' errors and how do you do it?	10 5 5	-believe there is a need to correct all the time -correct by repeating the sentence in the correct format -other students do the correction
4.	How far are the new textbook activities enjoyable and interesting to the children?	5 2 3	-activities in the textbook and workbook are interesting -some activities are interesting and a need for more -activities are boring, not useful, above students' level, and offer too much writing
5.	Do children use the language for a purpose to do something or to get some information or do they use it only to repeat and memorize for the test?	10	-agree that activities are not purposeful- activities check comprehension rather than prepare for the real use of the language- reasons are not having enough time and test pressure
6.	How do you teach grammar? Which is better and why, teaching grammar through game-like activities or teaching grammar through grammatical structures?	7 3 8 1 1	-explain grammatical rule on board or in a worksheet then give examples to practice the rule -teach grammar implicitly through pictures and repetition -agree that game-like activities are good like Simon Says -thinks grammatical explanations are better than games -says both are needed
7.	How useful is a graded structural syllabus for young learners?	9 1	-agree that a graded structural syllabus for young learners is useful -thinks content-based syllabus is better as grammar is taught implicitly
8.	Who do you think understands grammatical rules better, adults or children?	7 3	-adults understand better but children acquire the language better -children need time, adults are faster-children learn from listening rather than explaining rules
9.	How often do you use information-gap activities in your classroom? Why?	10	-never use information-gap activities in their lesson -reasons are: class size, no time, children difficult to control, children do not have enough language and children like play
10.	What is the difference between learning a FL and learning L1?	10	-L1 is learned better-learned since birth-hear & practice it all the time-more comfortable speaking it with ease- no effort of thinking

11.	How useful is the use of songs, stories, and games for teaching children a new language?	8 1 1	-they are useful, fun, help children learn grammar and vocabulary faster through repetition -games and stories are fine but songs are a waste of time -suitable for grades 1 and 2 while grades 3 and 4 need more reading
12.	Which of the following techniques for teaching grammar do you use and why: teach rules of grammar through repetition and memorization or help the students discover the rules with your help and guidance?	9 1	-use repetition and memorization being easier for children while discovery is difficult and students will make errors if left to discover -uses both repetition and discovery

Results show that, although teachers know a learner-centred method or weak CLT, they find it difficult to implement and give various reasons. For example, eight teachers prefer pair work to group work activities because pupils are hard to control and use their L1. All ten teachers believe there is a need to correct all the time and that the activities in the textbook do not prepare students for a real use of the language but to check comprehension. Nine of the ten teachers believe that a graded structural syllabus is useful for young learners. Results also show that all of the teachers teach grammar implicitly through presentation, practice, and production (PPP) used with weak CLT. This, along with classroom observation results, calls for a deeper investigation to find out what method teachers are using in their classrooms: learner-centred or language-centred.

4.3.2 Main study

Before going to Kuwait to collect the interview data for the main study, I wanted to get more information about the best ways of conducting interviews. I had a good practice during my pilot study (mentioned at the beginning of this chapter) which was useful, as I learned how to make myself and the questions clear without leading answers. To revise the questions many times and rewrite those that were not thought to be clear or might be misunderstood. I learned how to encourage my interviewee to speak and how to create a friendly atmosphere so she is not tense or intimidated. I also found most of this information during my readings (e.g. Richardson, Dobrenwend and Klein, 1965; Gorden, 1969; Garrett, 1970; Brenner, Brown and Canter, 1985; Breakwell, 1990; Nunan, 1992; Oppenheim, 1992; Davis, 1995; Lazaraton, 1995; Genesee and Upshur, 1996; Fielding, 2003; Liamputtong, and Ezzy, 2005). The authors discuss how to prepare for the interview, how to interview, what to do and what to avoid doing during interviews to get more reliable results. They also

discuss inhibitions of interviewees and how to motivate interviewees. The same teachers who were observed were also interviewed (see section 4.1.2.1).

4.3.2.1 Rationale for choosing structured interviews

The reason for using interviews in this study is that interviews are a good way to get in-depth data about people's beliefs, feelings and attitudes (Gay, 1992) and since this study is interested in comparing teachers' beliefs with their actual practice, it has need for an interview. Breakwell (1990) mentioned above, distinguishes between two kinds of interviews: structured and unstructured. Unstructured interviews define the topics rather than the questions to be asked. The order of the questions is not set but depends on the flow of the conversation. A good thing about them is that their open-ended questions allow participants to say as much as they like. However, it makes it hard to compare between interviewees. They are difficult to analyze and they take time. In structured interviews, on the other hand, the interviewer

> Asks each respondent exactly the same questions in exactly the same order. (Crowl, 1993:124).

this makes it easy to compare between subjects and makes certain that the main topics are covered. For all the above reasons, the present study used a structured interview.

When conducting interviews, there are a set of guidelines that need to be followed for setting questions (Breakwell, 1990; Oppenheim, 1992; Genesee and Upshur 1996). They should not include complex words or lead the interviewee. They should not be long, or challenge the interviewee's memory by asking him/her to recall old information, and they should not be able to be interpreted in more than one way. For the present study, there was a need to conduct interviews to find out about teachers' knowledge, values, preferences, and beliefs. Oppenheim (1992) says that interviews allow more to be said about the research issues than is usually mentioned in a questionnaire. Also, interviews are often used in the literature for investigating perceptions and knowledge (e.g. Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Zhang, 1997; Sato and Kleinsasser, 1999; Al-Khwaiter, 2001; Sakui, 2002). Another reason for choosing interviews is that misunderstandings can be clarified and the researcher can observe the interviewee and take notes of his/her behaviour.

The decision to use structured interviews demanded careful planning and preparation of the questions. Since this study is interested in finding out where the mismatch is between the curriculum, textbook, assessment, and teacher training on one hand, what teachers do in the classroom and what teachers believe they should do on the other, there is a need to carefully choose the topics that relate to these issues and to carefully set the questions that would help in revealing teachers' knowledge about them.

4.3.2.2 Rationale for interview topics

The questions of the main study were based on the findings of the pilot. After the pilot I discovered that Kuwait was using a learner-centred method, i.e. weak CLT, integrating linguistic structures and communicative functions. The pilot has shown that teachers teach grammar implicitly and use their L2 a lot while they still believe in over correction of pupils' errors and in drilling form. This called for a deeper investigation into those topics to elicit more data. Thirty five questions (see below for interview questions) will be discussed in detail when discussing the results of the interview in Chapter Six. Questions were designed to meet the research main objective of finding out where the mismatch is between what teachers are expected to do, what they believe they do, and what they actually do. Questions are put under two broad categories: second language acquisition (SLA) research and Communicative Language Teaching. The same categories were investigated during the pilot study and were found useful in revealing teachers' beliefs. Under each category different topics were discussed, such as age, input, instruction, fluency and accuracy, error correction, testing, and national curriculum assumptions.

The rationale for including SLA research is that it has a great potential to offer for classroom practice (e.g. Myles, Hooper & Mitchell, 1998; Peyton, 1998; Lightbown, 2000, 2003; Grenfell, 2003). A sound classroom practice needs to be based on SLA theory. Teachers being the implementers of the curriculum need to have some background knowledge in SLA to help them make wise decisions once they are in the classroom and needed to make quick decisions as to what suits their learners and what does not.

The rationale for including CLT is that the pilot study has shown the method used in primary foreign language classrooms in Kuwait to be weak CLT or learner-centred method. Weak CLT integrates linguistic structures and communicative functions to achieve accuracy and fluency. The study aims to find out whether teachers actually implement a weak CLT or not (see Chapter Two) and how much teachers know about it. Teachers' behaviour, whether learner-centred or not, is operationally defined and measured by the time teachers spent on the different COLT subcategories (see Chapter Five). The rationale for including foreign language teaching is to find out about teachers' pedagogical knowledge in teaching the different skills and whether teachers are aware of the constraints on their practice which might affect the fulfilment of curriculum goals and objectives.

Validity of interviews is established when they "accurately reflect the feelings, opinions, and so forth, of those interviewed and consequently permit appropriate interpretation of narrative data" (Gay, 1996:217). In the present study, Content validity of interview questions is achieved as the data obtained represents the issues under investigation in the research questions set at the beginning of this chapter namely: the curriculum, textbook/materials, assessment, teacher training, teacher knowledge, and teacher practice.[5] The questions are also straightforward, uncomplicated, and written in simple language. Reliability of the interview is established by asking thirty five questions that cover all the elements intended in the research questions.[6] Triangulation is established by cross-checking the interview data with the observation data and the documents and field notes to get a more complete picture of how those elements work together, and to emphasize the reliability and validity of the research.[7]

4.3.2.3 Design of interview questions

Before conducting the main study I needed to prepare for the interview. The decision was made on a set of thirty five questions to probe teachers' knowledge and perceptions and to further help in answering the research questions set forth in

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[5] If the data collection procedure is a good representation of the content which needs to be measured (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989:188).
[6] If the data collection procedure is consistent and accurate (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989:185).
[7] Is the use of multiple methods, data collection strategies, or data sources (Gay, 1996:217).

Chapter One. Interview topics were chosen after consulting other PhD theses that used interviews in their design (e.g. Chryschochoos, 1990; Goumandakoye, 1992; Al-Khwaiter, 2001; Tang, 2002; Mahadeo, 2003) as well as books and articles on CLT and teaching and learning English as a foreign language (e.g. Widdowson, 1978; Brumfit, 1979; Nunan, 1987; Holliday, 1994; Savignon, 1997; Al-Mutawa, 1997, 2003; Pachler, 2000; Breen and Candlin, 2001; Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Topics about SLA research were chosen after reading different articles in the field (Bailey, Madden, and Krashen, 1974; Pica, 1983; Pienemann, 1984; Lightbown, 1985; Mayo & Lecumberri, 2003; Lightbown and Spada, 2006). Questions were reviewed several times before setting the final format. Questions vary and cover a wide range of topics, such as age, input, national curriculum assumptions, instruction, error correction, fluency and accuracy, and testing. Questions were grouped and put under these topics/themes. There were questions that aimed at finding out what teachers know about SLA research. The second category of questions aimed at finding out what teachers' know about CLT. The third category of questions aimed at finding out about teachers' beliefs about the practicality of CLT, and finally those that aimed at finding out about teachers' perceptions of their own practice, i.e. what teachers say they do. The way questions are posed is meant to probe into teachers' knowledge and deep rooted beliefs and to make sure teachers really understood them. The total number of questions is thirty five distributed as follows:

A. Input in the classroom

1. Which do you think is more important in learning a FL, listening or speaking? Which do you think comes first? Why?
2. Do you think primary EFL learners should be pushed to communicate in English from the beginning of language learning?
3. Is it possible that EFL young learners would interact in English with each other if put in pairs and groups?
4. Is it possible to speak English during the whole lesson without using your L1 with primary EFL beginners?
5. Do you speak English all the time with your learners, during classroom routines, management, and instructions?
6. Do you use group and pair work activities in your lessons? When?

B. Age

7. Is there a difference between an adult and a child in learning a foreign Language?

8. Do you think Communicative Language Teaching would be more suitable to a child than an adult? Why?
9. Is it possible to use authentic materials (stories, films, newspapers) with EFL young learners?
10. Do you use authentic materials including audio visual aids with your learners? How often? Do your learners have any difficulties dealing with them?

C. Instruction

11. Can learners acquire the rules of grammar subconsciously through just hearing input?
12. Is it possible to teach grammar through communicative activities without explanation or drilling?
13. What kind of activities can be used to teach grammar communicatively?
14. Do you think using language for a real communicative purpose will result in fluency and accuracy?
15. How do you use English for a real purpose in the classroom?
16. Do you explain grammar rules or do you teach them implicitly through pattern drilling?
17. Do you think the teacher in the foreign language classroom is to provide target language input?
18. How practical is it for a teacher to become a guide and for children to work with less direction?
19. What role do you assume in your classroom, a provider of knowledge or a guide of pupils' activities?

D. Fluency and accuracy

20. Can young learners, exposed just to primary linguistic data, eventually acquire the target language accurately?
21. If you aim for communicative competence, how would you focus on accuracy?
22. Is it possible to teach fluency before accuracy or accuracy before fluency or both at the same time? Which one is more difficult to do? And why?
23. Do you teach fluency before accuracy or accuracy before fluency or both at the same time?

E. Error correction

24. What do errors represent?
25. Which errors do you think you need to correct, those affecting meaning or those affecting language?
26. Is it possible to ignore pupils' errors during a communicative activity? And which errors would you ignore?
27. How often do you correct your pupils' errors? Do you immediately correct them or do you leave them after the activity is finished?

F. Testing

28. How can one measure the development of linguistic competence?

29. How do you test communicative competence?
30. Is it possible to test pupils' communicative competence?
31. Which part of communicative competence do you test: grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic, or strategic?

G. National Curriculum assumptions

32. Why do learners make errors in spontaneous speech more than they do on written exams?
33. Do you think your pupils after 12 years of learning English as a foreign language will end up being communicatively competent?
34. Is it possible, given the time you have, to teach listening, speaking, reading and writing equally well?
35. Which of the four skills do you think you spend more time on in your classroom? Why?

4.3.2.4 Administration of interviews

Interviews were conducted at the end of classroom observations for three reasons: First, I did not want to alert teachers as to what I was after which may affect teachers' behaviour in the classroom. Second, I was anxious to finish the classroom observations before pupils started their final exams in May and started their summer holiday in June. Third, by the end of the course teachers would have known me and were feeling comfortable talking to me and answering the questions. Teachers were interviewed either in the school library or in the school meetings room. I used the same AIWA cassette recorder TP-VS450 which was used during classroom observations to record teachers' answers.

4.3.2.5 Analysis of teachers' interview

4.3.2.5.1 Data analysis procedures

After listening to the tapes (each interview took about one hour) for every one of the 23 teachers, detailed transcripts were made for every teacher. After the data was transcribed, teachers' responses were sorted out according to the three main categories discussed above. Teachers' responses were further subcategorized according to the issues raised in the questions to make it easy to quantify and compare the results. Two methods were used to analyze the data: a qualitative and a quantitative method. The quantitative method is based on the frequency counts of teachers' responses to the questions, i.e. how many teachers gave the same answer to the same question. The frequency counts are expressed as percentages of the total number of responses in that

category. Qualitative analysis also included quotations from the raw data to give examples or explanations to support the discussion of the quantitative data.

4.4 Conclusion

To conclude, this chapter has set forth the methodology used in this study. It discussed the pilot study which is the incentive behind conducting the present study. The pilot study has revealed issues that needed further and more thorough investigation. The mismatch between what teachers say in the questionnaire and in the interview and what they do in the classroom is the result, as teachers said, of multiple constraints. Classroom time, class size, the long curriculum, and the testing system are some of the constraints mentioned by the teachers. This study intends to investigate the matter more thoroughly by examining different sources of data to find out whether they work in harmony towards the implementation of curriculum goals. This leads to a discussion of how this study is conducted to be able to answer the research questions set forth in Chapter One. This chapter starts discussing the pilot study results followed by a discussion of the main study. A description of the methodology of the main study, the participants, its instruments, and procedures is discussed. Classroom observation procedures and interview procedures show how the data is collected to prepare for its analysis. A detailed discussion of classroom observation data analysis procedures and interview data analysis procedures follows along with the rationale for choosing qualitative and quantitative analysis. How the data is analyzed paves the way for a full discussion of the results in chapters five and six.

Teachers' interview results are discussed in detail in Chapter Six. Results are presented in tables and discussed according to three main categories and the topics raised in the questions. Every question is presented and discussed with quotes from the taped interviews. Teachers' classroom observation results are discussed next.

Chapter Five
Classroom Observation Results

5.0 Introduction

In Chapter Two we discussed agreement on what learner-centred vs. learning-centred methods are, i.e. weak vs. strong CLT. Educationalists, applied linguists, and teachers, believe in and understand the principles involved in learner or learning-centred methods, but report difficulties in implementing them in the classrooms. EFL curricula worldwide state goals aimed at developing students' communicative competence, but in actual implementation, as discussed in Chapter Two, teachers use traditional methods and techniques, e.g. ALM and GTM, to focus on form/accuracy. The result is a language-centred classroom. The reason, as reported by the teachers interviewed in the studies discussed, is a number of constraints on their practice, for example the testing system.

Kuwait, as discussed in Chapter Three, has adopted a learner-centred method, or weak CLT, focusing on linguistic structures along with their communicative functions in the hope of achieving accuracy and fluency. As we discussed in the same chapter, the *Kuwaiti Curriculum Document* along with the *Teacher's Guide* set their goals and objectives to develop students' communicative as well as linguistic competence. Most of the Kuwaiti textbook exercises and activities focussed mainly on learning, drilling and practicing structures, spelling, pronunciation, punctuation, and vocabulary. The number of communicative activities that are meaning-focused, are less in number than those which focus mainly on practicing the language for its own sake, and are used mainly to practice grammar in a communicative way. The *Teacher's Guide* further provides ideas for projects and journal and story writing to develop pupils' fluency. In keeping with CLT practice, both the textbook and the *Teacher's Guide* integrate the four skills. Assessment, however, does not include all skills or integrate them: there is no listening or speaking component in the written exam and ongoing assessment separates skills. Assessment in Kuwait focuses on testing lower-order thinking skills, memorized vocabulary; functions presented in specific dialogues that are drilled and practiced accordingly; punctuation; spelling; grammar; and textbook content.

A description of teacher training programmes shows that teachers are introduced to FL teaching methods with specific focus on the Communicative Approach, i.e. learning- or learner-centred methods, and to primary EFL. Examining the *Curriculum Document* and teacher training courses suggests there is a mismatch between these and assessment in terms of achieving students' communicative competence and integrating the four skills. This being the case, we need to find out what Kuwaiti teachers are actually doing in their classrooms. Primary EFL studies worldwide, discussed in Chapter Two, have reported various constraints on teachers' implementation of learner- or learning-centred methods such as adoption of form-focused textbooks, form-focused exams, and not enough time to conduct group work activities. The question is whether Kuwaiti teachers can fulfil the curriculum goals and programme objectives presented in Chapter 3 while using the textbook/materials proposed by the Ministry of Education and preparing students for assessment. If there are constraints, are these the same as those found worldwide? What methods and techniques are teachers using in these classrooms? This chapter will address the following question:

1. Are teachers implementing a CLT-based learner-centred method in their classrooms?
    a) Are classrooms teacher-centred with whole class activities or are they pupil-centred with group, individual and pair work activities?
    b) Are teachers spending more time on form at the expense of function and other meaningful activities?
    c) Are teachers in control of everything that goes on in class or do they encourage students to take control over their learning?
    d) Are the four skills integrated or are they segregated?

As discussed in Chapter Four, the teachers studied (N=23) were placed into three categories according to their experience: least (those below five years), medium (those from five to ten years), and most experienced (those above ten years). A stratified sampling technique was used where a representative sample was taken from each group (see Chapter Four): five teachers from the most experienced group, five teachers from the medium experienced group, and thirteen teachers from the least experienced group. The following hypothesis was formulated. The most and medium-

experienced teachers would be more oriented towards a learner-centred method than the least experienced group.

The 23 teachers were further placed into two categories according to their Education background, as discussed in Chapter Four: those with an Education background (N=15) and those with no Education background, but, for example Language and Literature (N=8). The following hypothesis was formulated. Those with a background in Education would be more oriented towards a learner-centred method than those with no Education background.

These teachers observed teaching were also interviewed to investigate their knowledge about CLT, their beliefs about practicality of CLT and their perception of their own practice. The questions to be addressed in Chapter 6 will be whether their knowledge of CLT, i.e. the principles, and beliefs map onto their training and their text/materials and whether their perception of what they do maps onto what they actually do.

In reporting the results of classroom observation, the results are given in the order in which they were coded, i.e. according to COLT part A for the four categories. I will start with Participant Organization, then Content, Content Control, and finally Student Modality. Each category will be briefly defined as they are already discussed in detail in Chapter Four, including how I coded the data. The results will then be presented in tables and be followed by an analysis of the data in terms of the hypotheses. A discussion of the results will be presented at the end of the chapter. I will start to report the results on teacher training first, as we have more concrete information about teachers' Education backgrounds, as discussed in detail in Chapter Three. Training is documented in this thesis with teacher training programme documents. Thus predictions can be based on teachers' assumed knowledge, because they have been taught the information and have been tested on it, while experience has not.

Observations one and two were analyzed separately and then were combined to include more teacher behaviour. No important differences were found for the same teacher between observation one and observation two; for any that were observed, the researcher believes they had to do with observer effect, thus justifying this discussion.

Differences were, however, seen between teachers in the amount of time they spent on every one of the COLT subcategories.

5.1 Participant Organization

Participant Organization, as discussed in Chapter Four, refers to "the way in which students are organized" (see Spada and Frohlich, 1995:15). It is divided into 'Class', 'Group', and 'Individual'. 'Class' is subdivided into 'T—S/C', 'S—S/C', where 'T'= teacher, 'S'= Student, and 'C'= Class and 'Choral' (see definition in Chapter Four). For this category, it is important to find out how classrooms are organized to see whether such organization affects the kind of interaction between teachers and their pupils and how that reflects the methodology used in primary EFL classrooms in Kuwait. If an activity was done as a whole class and led by the teacher I coded it under Teacher-Student/Class. If the activity was between a student and another student or between a student and the class I coded it under Student-Student/Class. If the whole class or groups repeated after the teacher or after the tape, I coded it under Choral. If pupils worked in groups on an activity, I coded it under Group. If pupils worked alone I coded it under Individual.

First, the data will be presented according to teachers' Educational background, as per reasons discussed above. The criterion used to measure teachers' behaviour towards a learner-centred method was the amount of time they spent on three subcategories under Participant Organization that are seen as learner-centred techniques. Learner-centeredness is based on a definition of a learner-centred method in Chapter Two, and refers to Student-Student/Class, Choral Individual and Group, i.e. learners interacting with each other to try to solve a puzzle by themselves instead of depending on the teacher. Although the technique of 'Choral' might be considered teacher-centred or language-centred it is learner-centred from the point of view that learners in this study are young and beginners. This technique is needed to help them acquire the right pronunciation and as a step to precede, or is necessitated by, a communicative activity, but should not be overused. The criterion used to measure teachers' use of a non-learner-centred methodology is the amount of time teachers spent on Teacher-Student/Class.

A number of tests were applied to measure the time spent by teachers on these subcategories (for the raw numbers see appendix 10). Three tests are summarized in Table 5.1. It is hypothesized that there will be differences in the time teachers spent on one subcategory compared with the other within groups. The first test applied is the Friedman Test, which is used to detect whether the time spent on the COLT subcategories, mentioned above, is the same for all teachers with an Education background. The second test is the I-Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test, which is used to detect the real difference in the amount of time spent on Teacher-Student/Class as a non-learner-centred technique, compared with the amount of time spent on the other COLT subcategories, i.e. Student-Student/Class, Choral, Group, and Individual, as learner-centred techniques. to find out whether teachers with an Education background are learner-centred or language-centred in their teaching methods. In case the I-Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test gives evidence that teachers with Education background are non-learner centred, we make a further test: the II-Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test, to measure the amount of time teachers spend on COLT subcategories that lead to learner-centred method namely Student-Student/Class, Choral, Group, and Individual. This test is used to detect the difference among each pair of COLT subcategories without Teacher-Student/Class, to find out which of the COLT subcategories (i.e. learner-centred) do teachers spend more time on. So, the I-Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test and the II-Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test are used to compare the difference in time spent on each pair of the COLT subcategories by each group of teachers. While the Mann-Whitney Test and the Kruskal Wallis Test compare the difference between groups in the time they spent on the same subcategory.

Table 5.1 Differences in amount of time spent on Participant Organization for teachers with Education background

Test		P-Value
Friedman		0.000 **
I-Wilcoxon	SSC-TSC	0.001**
	Choral-TSC	0.001**
	Group-TSC	0.001**
	Individual-TSC	0.001**
II-Wilcoxon	Choral/SSC	0.124
	Group/SSC	0.001**
	Individual/SSC	0.003**
	Group/Choral	0.001**
	Individual/Choral	0.004**
	Individual/Group	0.553

** highly significant / * significant – Level of test 5%

Table 5.1 shows that there is sufficient evidence to conclude that the time spent on each COLT subcategory by the group of teachers with an Education background is significantly different across the COLT subcategories, as seen in the Friedman Test results which are highly significant (P-value=0.000). Because the results of Friedman Test reveal significance as to the amount of time spent on every one of the subcategories, a multiple comparison was conducted between Teacher-Student/Class subcategory and every one of the other subcategories, i.e. Student-Student/Class, Choral, Group, and Individual. The results show that teachers with an Education background spent more time on Teacher-Student/Class, compared with the other subcategories, as indicated by the difference shown in the significant results of the I-Wilcoxon (P-value=0.001) and the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test (see Table 2 appendix 10) that showed the direction of significance towards T-S/C. The results of II-Wilcoxon Test show a significant difference (P-value=0.001, 0.003) between the time spent on each pair of Student-Student/Class with Choral, Group and Individual where more time was spent on Student-Student/Class (as shown in Table 3 appendix 10 by the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test). The test also shows significant differences (P-value=0.001) between time spent on Choral and Group where more time was spent on Choral as shown in Table 3 appendix 10. It is clear that teachers with an Education background spent more time on Student-Student/Class and Choral subcategories. Now we turn to distribution of type of participation by teachers with no Education Background

Table 5.2 Differences in amount of time spent on Participant Organization for teachers with no Education Background

Test		P-Value
Friedman		0.000**
I-Wilcoxon	SSC-TSC	0.012*
	Choral-TSC	0.012*
	Group-TSC	0.012*
	Individual-TSC	0.012*
II-Wilcoxon	Choral/SSC	0.025*
	Group/SSC	0.028*
	Individual/SSC	0.035*
	Group/Choral	0.292
	Individual/Choral	0.161
	Individual/Group	0.679

** highly significant
* significant- level of test 5%

Table 5.2 shows that the Friedman Test detected a significant difference between the time allocated to each COLT subcategory by the group of teachers with no Education background (P-value=0.000). Teachers with no Education background spent more time on the subcategory Teacher-Student/Class compared with the other COLT subcategories as shown by the significant test results of I-Wilcoxon Test (P-value=0.012) where more time is spent on Teacher-Student/Class compared to the other subcategories as seen in Table 5 appendix 10 of the I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test. The II-Wilcoxon Test aimed to find out which pairing of Student-Student/Class, Choral, Group and Individual are significantly different with regards to the amount of time spent on them. Test results showed a significant difference in time spent on Student-Student/Class compared with Choral, Group, and Individual. Teachers with no Education background spent more time on Student-Student/Class compared to the other categories (as shown in Table 6 appendix 10 by the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test). The I-Wilcoxon Test as seen in Tables 5.1 and 5.2 indicates that significantly more time was spent by teachers with Education background on Teacher-Student/Class compared with teachers with no Education background. In general, both groups of teachers spent some time on Student-Student/Class, as indicated by the II-Wilcoxon Test in Tables 5.1 and 5.2. The Mann-Whitney Test is used to detect the difference between groups of teachers, those with Education and with no Education background with respect to time spent by each group of teachers on the same COLT subcategory.

Table5.3 Differences in time spent on Participant Organization between teachers with and without Education background

Mann-Whitney Test	
TSC	0.497
SSC	0.230
Choral	0.048*
Group	1.000
Individual	0.917

As seen in Tables 5.3 above and 5.4 below the two groups of teachers are significantly different with respect to the amount of time spent on Choral (P-value=0.048) where teachers with Education background spent more time on it, as seen in the Mann-Whitney Test below.

Table 5.4 Mean ranks of the time spent on Participant Organization for teachers with Education background and with no Education background as shown by the Mann-Whitney Test

	Education	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
TSC	With education	15	12.70	190.50
	With NO Ed.bkgrnd	8	10.69	85.50
	Total	23		
SSC	With education	15	10.77	161.50
	With NO Ed.bkgrnd	8	14.31	114.50
	Total	23		
CHORAL	With education	15	14.03	210.50
	With NO Ed.bkgrnd	8	8.19	65.50
	Total	23		
GROUP	With education	15	12.00	180.00
	With NO Ed.bkgrnd	8	12.00	96.00
	Total	23		
INDIVIDUAL	With education	15	11.90	178.50
	With NO Ed.bkgrnd	8	12.19	97.50
	Total	23		

Now we turn to the second hypothesis, where it is hypothesized that teachers with the most and medium experience would be more learner-centred and thus use the subcategories Student-Student/Class, Choral, Group and Individual, more than those with the least experience. Table 5.5 shows the results according to the Friedman Test.

Table 5.5 Significance of time spent on Participant Organization according to experience shown by the Friedman Test

Test	Most	Medium	Least
Friedman	P-Value	P-Value	P-Value
	0.001**	0.002**	0.000**

** highly significant
* significant- level of test 5%

There is a highly significant difference in time spent on the COLT subcategories by the three groups of teachers (P-value<5%). Because the overall Friedman Test results showed significant figures, multiple comparison was conducted between Teacher-Student/Class (T-S/C) and every one of Student-Student/Class (S-S/C), Choral, Group and Individual.

Table 5.6 Differences in the amount of time spent on Participant Organization according to experience

Test	COLT Subcategories	Most	Medium	Least
		P-Value	P-Value	P-Value
I-Wilcoxon	SSC/TSC	0.043*	0.043*	0.001**
	Choral/TSC	0.043*	0.043*	0.001**
	Group/TSC	0.039*	0.042*	0.001**
	Individual/TSC	0.039*	0.043*	0.001**
II-Wilcoxon	Choral/SSC	0.176	0.273	0.025*
	Group/SSC	0.042*	0.043*	0.003**
	Individual/SSC	0.042*	0.225	0.003**
	Group/Choral	0.043*	0.043*	0.054*
	Individual/Choral	0.043*	0.345	0.021*
	Individual/Group	1.000	0.109	1.000

**highly significant
* significant-level of test 5%

Table 5.6 shows that significantly more time (P-value<5%) was spent on Teacher-Student/Class by the three groups of teachers compared with the other COLT subcategories, as shown by the difference in time spent on Teacher-Student/Class compared with the other subcategories according to Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test (see Tables 8, 11, and 14 appendix 10). Test results are highly significant in the case of teachers with the least experience. Teachers with the least experience spent more time on Teacher-Student/Class compared with the other subcategories, as shown by the mean ranks (see Table 14 appendix 10) which support the test. According to the II-Wilcoxon Test, teachers with the least experience spent more time on Student-Student/Class, as the test results are highly significant in favour of Student-Student/Class against Group, Choral and Individual COLT subcategories (see Table 15 appendix 10). Teachers with the most and medium experience spent less time on Student-Student/Class than teachers with the least experience, as the test results are not highly significant for both groups of teachers. Table 5.6 also shows that Student-Student/Class and Choral are the most frequent COLT subcategories used by the three groups of teachers. The Kruskal Wallis Test was further applied to test how the time spent on the same COLT subcategory is compared across the three groups of teachers.

Table 5.7 Differences in time spent on Participant Organization between teachers with different experiences

Test	COLT Subcategories	P-Value
Kruskal Wallis	TSC	0.037*
	SSC	0.757
	CHORAL	0.875
	GROUP	0.055
	INDIVIDUAL	0.085

** highly significant
* significant - Level of test 5%

Based on Table 5.7 teachers with the most, medium, and least experience differ significantly in the time they spent on Teacher-Student/Class (P-value<5%). Because the overall Kruskal-Wallis test is significant, multiple comparisons were conducted among each pair of the three groups of teachers to investigate how groups differ in the time they spent on Teacher-Student/Class COLT subcategory.

Table 5.8 Differences in time spent on Teacher-Student/Class between each pair of teachers according to experience

Test	COLT Subcategories TSC		Most	Medium	Least
			P-Value	P-Value	P-Value
Mann-Whitney	Most	P-Value	-	0.458	0.016*
	Medium	P-Value	-	-	0.139
	Least	P-Value	-	-	-

** highly significant
* significant-level of test 5%

Table 5.8 shows that teachers with most and least experience differ significantly in the time they spent on Teacher-Student/Class. The Kruskal-Wallis Test (see Table 16 appendix 10) shows teachers with most experience using it the most.

5.2 Content

Content, as discussed in Chapter Four, refers to the subject matter discussed, read, written, or listened to by teacher and student (as in Spada and Frohlich, 1995). It is divided into 'Language' and 'Other'. 'Language' is subdivided into 'Form', 'Function', and 'Discourse'. By looking at 'Content', it is possible to find out about the kind of

language used in those classrooms and hence the kind of instruction. According to the Kuwaiti Curriculum, discussed in Chapter Three, a learner-centred method is aimed for and is defined in Chapter Two as the teaching of linguistic structures and communicative functions through meaning-focused activities (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Kumaravadivelu, 2006) (see Chapter Two). Are teachers focusing on language or communicative function in the classroom? According to the *Teacher's Guide* (2005), discussed in Chapter Three, the method used in the text and materials is learner-centred, providing learners with linguistic structures and communicative functions (see Chapter Three). Is instruction communicative? Is it meaning-focused? Under a learner-centred method, the teaching of linguistic items should be presented within meaning-focused activities (Widdowson, 1990). Communication in general is meaningful and hence interaction in the classroom should be meaningful. As discussed in Chapter Two, a language-centred method would focus primarily on language structure and forms while a learner-centred method would emphasize both function and language (Klapper, 2006). Spada and Frohlich (1995) say that more time spent on language, i.e. vocabulary, grammar, spelling, pronunciation, etc., and correction means the classroom is language-centred. However, more time spent on presenting and practicing language along with communicative function through meaning-focused activities makes those classrooms more learner-centred.

According to the Content category, if the activity focuses on forms, e.g. explaining vocabulary or practicing linguistic structures or practicing pronunciation, it is coded under Form. If the activity or exercise is to practice communicative functions, it is coded under Functions. If the exercise or activity is to put sentences in their right order of events, it is coded under Discourse. 'Other' is used to code other activities that do not fit under those subcategories such as when pupils listen to a dialogue or a text from a tape or read by the teacher, when they sing, when the read silently, when they make their oral presentations, when the teacher explains procedure and when she asks and elicits answers about comprehension of reading.

The criterion used to measure teachers' learner-centred behaviour was the amount of time they spent on seven subcategories under Content that are seen to reflect a learner-centred method, based on a definition of a learner-centred method in Chapter Two, namely Function, Discourse, Listening/Dialogue/Text, Singing, Reading

Silently, pupil's Oral Presentation, and Set book/Comprehension Questions. The criterion used to measure teachers' behaviour towards a non-learner-centred method was the amount of time teachers spent on the subcategory Form based on a definition of a language-centred method in Chapter two.

Table 5.9 below shows the results of the three tests applied to these data in the following order: The Friedman Test to detect whether the two groups of teachers with and without an Education background spent the same or different amounts of time on the above COLT Content subcategories. The I-Wilcoxon Rank Test was used to detect whether there was a real difference in the amount of time spent on Form compared with the amount of time spent on Function, Discourse, Listening/Dialogue/Text, Singing, Reading Silently, Oral Presentation and Set book/Comprehension questions. This allows us to determine whether teachers with Education versus with no-Education backgrounds are more or less learner-centred. In case the I-Wilcoxon Test gives evidence that teachers with Education background were non-learner-centred, I applied a further test, the II-Wilcoxon Test, to measure the amount of time teachers spent on the other COLT subcategories that are considered to point to learner-centeredness, namely Function, Discourse, Listening to a dialogue or text, Singing, Reading Silently, Oral Presentation, and set book/Comprehension Questions. The II-Wilcoxon Test is used to detect the difference among each pair of the COLT subcategories above, with the exception of Form.

Table 5.9 below shows that the time spent on each COLT subcategory by teachers with an Education background is significantly different among COLT subcategories, as shown by the Friedman Test results, which are highly significant (P-value<5). Because the Friedman Test results are significant, a multiple comparison was conducted among each pairing of Form subcategory with every one of the other COLT subcategories, e.g. Function, Discourse, Listening/Dialogue/Text, Singing, Reading Silently, Oral Presentation, Explaining Procedure and Set book/Comprehension questions.

Table 5.9 Differences in amount of time spent on Content for teachers with Education background

Test		P-Value
Friedman		0.000 **
I-Wilcoxon	Function-Form	0.001**
	Discourse-Form	0.001**
	Listening/Dialogue-Form	0.001**
	Singing/Form	0.001**
	Reading Silently-Form	0.001**
	Oral Presentation-Form	0.001**
	Explaining Procedure-Form	0.001**
	Set book/Compr.ques-Form	0.001**
II-Wilcoxon	Set book/Compr.ques-Discourse	0.001**
	Set book/Compr.ques-Reading	0.001**
	Listening/Dialogue- Discourse	0.005**
	Listening/Dialogue-Function	0.003**
	Singing- Listening/Dialogue	0.001**
	Reading - Listening/Dialogue	0.001**
	Oral Presentation -Listening/Dialogue	0.006**
	Set book/Compr.ques- Explaining Procedure	0.001**
	Set book/Compr.ques./Function	0.001**
	Set book/Compr.ques-Singing	0.001**
	Set book/Compr.ques-Oral	0.001**
	Set book/Compr.ques Listening/Dialogue	0.031*

** highly significant
* significant- level of test 5%

Results showed significantly more time (P-value<5%) was spent on the subcategory Form by teachers with an Education background compared with the other COLT subcategories, as shown by the real difference in time spent on Form compared with the other COLT subcategories by the I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test (see Table 18 appendix 10). The II-Wilcoxon Test results were highly significant to detect the difference between all possible pairs of COLT subcategories in the group of teachers with an Education background with respect to amount of time. The test shows highly significant differences where more time is spent on Set book/Comprehension questions and Listening/Dialogue/Text according to II Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test, shown in Table 19 appendix 10. It indicates that these COLT subcategories seem to be important to this group of teachers, as they spend more time on them compared to the other subcategories. For teachers with no Education background Table 5.10 below lists the results.

Table 5.10 Differences in the amount of time spent on Content for teachers with no Education background

Test		P-Value
Friedman		0.000 **
I-Wilcoxon	Function-Form	0.012*
	Discourse-Form	0.012*
	Listening/Dialogue-Form	0.012*
	Singing/Form	0.012*
	Reading Silently-Form	0.012*
	Oral Presentation-Form	0.012*
	Explaining Procedure-Form	0.012*
	Set book/Compr.ques-Form	0.017*
II-Wilcoxon	Set book/Compr.ques-Discourse	0.025*
	Set book/Compr.ques-Reading	0.012*
	Listening/Dialogue- Discourse	0.236
	Listening/Dialogue-Function	0.917
	Singing- Listening/Dialogue	0.173
	Reading - Listening/Dialogue	0.027*
	Oral Presentation -Listening/Dialogue	0.175
	Set book/Compr.ques- Explaining Procedure	0.012*
	Set book/Compr.ques./Function	0.012*
	Set book/Compr.ques-Singing	0.012*
	Set book/Compr.ques-Oral	0.012*
	Set book/Compr.ques- Listening/Dialogue	0.012*

** highly significant
* significant-level of test 5%

Table 5.10 shows that Friedman Test detected a significant difference in the time spent on each COLT subcategory by the group of teachers with no Education background (P-value<5%). More time was spent on Form by teachers with no Education background compared with the other COLT subcategories, as shown by the real difference in time spent on Form compared to the other COLT subcategories as indicated by the I-Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test (see Table 21 appendix 10). The II-Wilcoxon Test results show significant differences between all possible pairs of COLT subcategories within the group of teachers with no Education background, with respect to time except for the following pairs where the test results do not show significant differences:

- Listening/Dialogue/Text and Function COLT subcategories
- Oral Presentation and Listening/Dialogue/Text COLT subcategories
- Listening/Dialogue/Text and Discourse COLT subcategories
- Singing and Listening/Dialogue/Text COLT subcategories

More time is spent on Set book/Comprehension questions by teachers with no Education background as indicated by the II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test (see Table 22 appendix 10). With respect to the significance of the test results as shown by I-Wilcoxon Test in Tables 5.9 and 5.10, teachers with Education background spent significantly more time on Form compared with the other subcategories. As for the II-Wilcoxon Test, teachers with Education background spent significantly more time on the subcategories Set book/comprehension questions and Listening/Dialogue/Text compared with the other subcategories, while teachers with no Education background spent significantly more time on Set book/Comprehension questions. Unlike the Wilcoxon Test above, the Mann-Whitney Test below compares between groups of teachers with Education and with no Education background in the same subcategory.

Table 5.11 Mean ranks of the time spent on Content for teachers with Education background and with no Education background as shown by the Mann-Whitney Test

	Education background	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Form	With education	15	13.27	199.00
	With NO Ed. bkgrnd	8	9.63	77.00
	Total	23		
Function	With education	15	9.43	141.50
	With NO Ed. bkgrnd	8	16.81	134.50
	Total	23		
Discourse	With education	15	11.73	176.00
	With NO Ed.bkgrnd	8	12.50	100.00
	Total	23		
Listening/dialogue/text	With education	15	13.90	208.50
	With NO Ed. bkgrnd	8	8.44	67.50
	Total	23		
singing	With education	15	10.90	163.50
	With NO Ed. bkgrnd	8	14.06	112.50
	Total	23		
Reading silently	With education	15	11.00	165.00
	With NO. Ed. bkgrnd	8	13.88	111.00
	Total	23		
Oral presentation	With education	15	12.30	184.50
	With NO Ed. bkgrnd	8	11.44	91.50
	Total	23		
Explaining procedure	With education	15	12.10	181.50
	With NO Ed. bkgrnd	8	11.81	94.50
	Total	23		
Set book /compr. ques.	With education	15	10.37	155.50
	With NO Ed. bkgrnd	8	15.06	120.50
	Total	23		

The Wilcoxon Test compares pairs of the Content subcategories within groups, the Mann-Whitney Test (see Table 5.11 above) compares between teachers (across groups) in the mean rank of the time spent on the same subcategory under Content for teachers with an Education and with no Education background. It does not only show the mean rank difference in time spent on Function between the two groups, but also identifies the group with the highest mean rank, e.g. the mean rank of those with no Education background was 16.81, compared to those with an Education background where it was 9.43. It is hypothesized that teachers with an Education background are more learner-centred than teachers with no Education background.

Table 5.12 below shows the 2-tailed Significance, or the P value for each one of the subcategories under Content for the two groups of teachers with an Education and with no-Education background, which further shows that there is a significant difference (P-value=.010) with regard to Function. The two groups differ in the time they spent on Function; those with no Education spending more time on it, as shown in Table 5.11.

Table 5.12 Significance of time spent on each one of the Content subcategories for the two groups of teachers

	Form	Function	Discourse	Listening/dialogue/text	singing	Reading silently	Oral presentation	Explaining procedure	Set book /compr. ques.
Mann-Whitney U	41.000	21.500	56.000	31.500	43.500	45.000	55.500	58.500	35.500
Wilcoxon W	77.000	141.500	176.000	67.500	163.500	165.000	91.500	94.500	155.500
Z	-1.227	-2.579	-.528	-1.847	-1.475	-1.980	-.376	-.165	-1.588
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.220	.010	.597	.065	.140	.048	.707	.869	.112
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.238[a]	.011[a]	.825[a]	.065[a]	.294[a]	.357[a]	.776[a]	.925[a]	.115[a]

a. Not corrected for ties.

b. Grouping Variable: Education background

Based on the results of Tables 5.11 and 5.12 the two groups of teachers are significantly different, i.e. the P-value<5%, with respect to the amount of time spent on 'Function' versus other categories. Teachers with no Education background spent a significant time on it compared with the other group (P-value=.010< 5%). Therefore, the first hypothesis is rejected.

As discussed in Chapter Four, teachers were placed into three groups according to their experience, those with the most experience (N=5), those with the medium

experience (N=5) and those with the least experience (N=13). It is hypothesized that teachers with the most and medium experience would be more learner-centred than those with the least experience.

Table 5.13 Significance of time spent on Content according to experience shown by the Friedman Test

Test	Most	Medium	Least
Friedman	P-Value	P-Value	P-Value
	0.000**	0.000**	0.000**

Based on the results of Table 5.13, the amount of time spent on Content subcategories by the three groups of teachers significantly differs (P-value<5%). Because the overall Friedman Test results are significant, a multiple comparison was conducted on each pair of 'Form' subcategory with every one of the other COLT subcategories to see whether there were any significant differences in the time spent on Form compared to the other subcategories, as shown by Table 5.14 below.

Table 5.14 Differences in the amount of time spent on Content according to experience

Test	COLT Subcategories	Most	Medium	Least
		P-Value	P-Value	P-Value
I-Wilcoxon	Function-Form	0.043*	0.043*	0.001**
	Discourse-Form	0.043*	0.043*	0.001**
	Listening/Dialogue-Form	0.043*	0.043*	0.001**
	Singing/Form	0.043*	0.043*	0.001**
	Reading Silently-Form	0.043*	0.043*	0.001**
	Oral Presentation-Form	0.043*	0.043*	0.001**
	Explaining Procedure-Form	0.043*	0.043*	0.001**
	Set book/Compr.ques-Form	0.043*	0.043*	0.002**
II-Wilcoxon	Set book/Compr.ques-Function	0.043*	0.043*	0.001**
	Listening/Dialogue-Discourse	0.043*	0.043*	0.018*
	Set book/Compr.ques-Discourse	0.042*	0.043*	0.001**
	Reading Silently- Listening/Dialogue	0.043*	0.043*	0.006**
	Oral Presentation- Listening/Dialogue	0.043*	0.043*	0.107
	Explaining Procedure- Listening/Dialogue	0.043*	0.104	0.003**
	Set book/Compr.ques-Reading	0.042*	0.043*	0.001**
	Set book/Compr.ques-Singing	0.042*	0.043*	0.001*
	Set book/Compr.ques-Oral	0.043*	0.043*	0.002**
	Set book/Compr.ques-Explaining	0.042*	0.317	0.001**
	Set book/Compr.ques- Listening/Dialogue	0.686	0.104	0.002**

** highly significant
* significant-level of test 5%

The table shows that significantly more time (P-value<5%) is spent on Form by the three groups of teachers compared with the other COLT subcategories, as shown by the real difference in time spent on 'Form' compared to the other COLT subcategories and shown by the significant test results of I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test, at 5% level of significance (see Tables 24, 27, and 30 appendix 10). It also shows that teachers with the least experience spent significantly more time on Form than on the other subcategories and compared with the other groups because the test results are highly significant in the case of teachers with the least experience (see Table 5.14 above). The Table also shows that time spent on Form is almost equivalent in the case of teachers with most and medium experience, as shown by the mean ranks (see Tables 24 and 27 appendix 10). Based on the II-Wilcoxon Test these differences are significant for all possible pairs of COLT subcategories, except the following:

- Oral Presentation and Listening/Dialogue/Text in the case of teachers with the least experience.
- Explaining Procedure and Listening/Dialogue/Text in the case of teachers with medium experience.
- Set book/Comprehension questions and Explaining Procedure in the case of teachers with medium experience.

Thus, while there were no significant differences between Oral presentation and Listening to Dialogue or Text, nor between Reading Silently and Listening to Dialogue or Text, teachers with the least experience spent significantly more time on Set book/Comprehension questions than on the other COLT subcategories, as shown by the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test (see Table 31 appendix 10). There was, however, a highly significant difference (P-value=.003) between Explaining Procedure and Listening/Dialogue/Text where more time was spent on Listening/Dialogue/Text. Table 5.14 also shows that teachers with most and medium experience spent significantly less time on Set book/Comprehension questions and 'Listening/Dialogue/Text' than on the other COLT subcategories, as shown by the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test (see Tables 25 and 28 appendix 10). The COLT subcategories, specifically 'Set book and Comprehension questions' and 'Listening to Dialogue or Text', are the most used subcategories by all three groups of teachers, as significantly more time was spent on them, as shown by the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks

Test (see Tables 25, 28 and 31 appendix 10). The Kruskal Wallis Test whose results are given below shows that there is no significant difference between the three groups of teachers.

Table 5.15 Differences in time spent on Content between teachers with different experiences

Test	COLT Subcategories	P-Value
Kruskal Wallis	Form	0.896
	Function	0.115
	Discourse	0447
	Listening/Dialogue	0.880
	Singing	0.821
	Reading Silently	0.447
	Oral Presentation	0.280
	Explaining Procedure	0.588
	Set book /Compr.ques.	0.290

Although significant differences in time were found between pairs of Content subcategories for each group, as shown by the Wilcoxon Test above, the Kruskal Wallis Test (Table 5.15) which compares all three groups of teachers on the time they spent on the same Content subcategory, showed no significant differences between the three groups of teachers (P-value>5%). According to these results, we conclude that there is no evidence to support the contribution of experience on the difference in time spent on the above COLT subcategories by the three groups of teachers. Therefore, the second hypothesis as far as Content is rejected.

5.3 Content control

Content control, discussed in Chapter Four, refers to who selects the topic or task that is the focus of instruction (Spada and Frohlich, 1995). It is divided into Teacher/Text, Teacher/Text/Student, and Student (see Chapter Four). Spada and Frohlich (ibid) report that if students are more involved in their learning and are encouraged to negotiate the content of instruction, it will contribute positively to their learning. According to CLT, or learner/learning-centred methods, as discussed in Chapter Two, learners can play an active role in their learning, and where the teachers' role is less dominant, learners' needs and interests are the focus of instruction. Learners' can

choose the linguistic forms and functions they need to use, and their talking time will be maximized. Perhaps young beginning learners will not yet be able to negotiate the content of what they are learning, but they can be given some responsibility for their learning.

In this category, when the activity was controlled by the teacher or by the text, e.g. when the teacher distributed a worksheet that she prepared for the pupils to practice linguistic structures and vocabulary, I coded it under 'Teacher/Text'. If the teacher asked the pupils to use a word from their textbook in sentences of their own, I coded it under 'Teacher/Text/Student'. If the pupil prepared a topic of her own and read it to the class, I coded it under 'Student'. I will first discuss the results based on teachers' Education background and then by experience, as above. A learner-centred behaviour was measured by the amount of time teachers spent on 'teacher/text/student' and 'student' as the criterion to reflect a learner-centred method discussed in Chapter Two. The criterion used to measure teachers' non-learner-centred activity control was the amount of time teachers spent on the subcategory 'Teacher/Text', according to a language-centred method.

Table 5.16 below shows results from three kinds of tests applied to 'Content Control' subcategories 'Teacher/Text', 'Teacher/Text/Student', and 'Student'. The Friedman Test was used to detect whether teachers with Education background spent the same or different amounts of time on the relevant COLT subcategories. The I-Wilcoxon Ranks Test was used to detect the real difference on the amount of time spent by teachers with an Education background in the subcategory 'Teacher/text' compared with the amount of time spent on 'Teacher/Text/Student' and 'Student' to find out whether teachers with an Education background are learner-centred or language-centred. Finally, the II-Wilcoxon Ranks Test was used in case the I-Wilcoxon Test and gave evidence that teachers with an Education background were non-learner-centred. Here we apply a further test to measure the amount of time teachers spent on the COLT subcategories that lead to a learner-centred method namely, 'Teacher/Text/Student' and 'Student' by conducting the II-Wilcoxon Test to detect whether there were any differences between each pair of the above subcategories.

Table 5.16 Differences in the amount of time spent on Content Control for teachers with Education background

Test		P-Value
Friedman		0.000 **
I-Wilcoxon	Teacher/Text/student-Teacher/Text	0.001**
	Student-Teacher/Text	0.001**
II-Wilcoxon	Student-Teacher/Text/Student	0.010*

** highly significant
* significant-Level of test 5%

According to the table the time allocated to each COLT subcategory by the group of teachers with an Education background is significantly different among COLT subcategories as a result of Friedman Test which is highly significant (P-value<5%). Because the results are significant, a multiple comparison was conducted for each pairing of 'Teacher/Text' subcategory with the other COLT subcategories. This test, the I-Wilcoxon Test, shows that teachers with an Education background spent a significant time (P-value<5%) on 'Teacher/Text' compared with the other COLT subcategories, as indicated by the real difference in time spent on 'Teacher/Text' compared with the other COLT subcategories (see Table 34 appendix 10). The II-Wilcoxon Test shows significant differences, i.e. more time, spent on 'Teacher/Text/Student' compared to 'Student' COLT subcategory (see Table 35 appendix 10). We now turn to teachers with no Education background.

Table 5.17 Differences in the amount of time spent on Content Control for teachers with no Education background

Test		P-Value
Friedman		0.002 **
I-Wilcoxon	Teacher/Text/student-Teacher/Text	0.012*
	Student-Teacher/Text	0.012*
II-Wilcoxon	Student-Teacher/Text/Student	0.068

** highly significant
* significant-level of test 5%

The Friedman Test, the results of which are shown in Table 5.17, detects a highly significant difference (P-Value<5%) in the time spent on each COLT subcategory by teachers with no Education background. Teachers with no Education background spent significantly more time (P-value<5%) on the subcategory 'Teacher/Text'

compared to the other COLT subcategories as indicated by the results of I-Wilcoxon Test, where more time is spent on 'Teacher/Text', as indicated by the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test (see Table 37 appendix 10). The Mann-Whitney Test was conducted to evaluate the contribution of Education background to time allocated to each COLT subcategory as shown in Table 5.18.

Table 5.18 Significance of time spent on each one of the Content Control subcategories for the two groups of teachers

	Teacher/Text	Teacher/Text/ Student	Student
Mann-Whitney U	41.500	47.000	59.000
Wilcoxon W	77.500	167.000	95.000
Z	-1.201	-.849	-.084
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.230	.396	.933
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.238[a]	.428[a]	.975[a]

a. Not corrected for ties.

The results indicate no significant difference (P-value >5%) on the time allocated to the same COLT subcategory by teachers with Education background and with no Education background. Accordingly, we conclude that there is no evidence to support the contribution of education to the difference in time spent on the above COLT subcategories by the two groups of teachers. We now turn to experience; it is hypothesized that teachers with the most and medium experience would be more learner-centred than those with the least experience.

Table 5.19 Significance of time spent on Content Control according to experience shown by the Friedman Test

Test	Most	Medium	Least
Friedman	P-Value	P-Value	P-Value
	0.007**	0.009**	0.000**

** highly significant
* significant- level of test 5%

Table 5.19 shows that the three groups of teachers spent significantly different amounts of time (P-value <5%) on the COLT subcategories. Because the overall Friedman Test results indicate significance, a multiple comparison was conducted between pairings of 'Teacher/Text' subcategory with every other COLT subcategory, as shown in Table 5.20.

Table 5.20 Differences in the amount of time spent on Content Control for teachers with different experiences

Test	COLT Subcategories	Most	Medium	Least
		P-Value	P-Value	P-Value
I-Wilcoxon	Teacher/Text/student-Teacher/Text	0.042*	0.042*	0.001**
	Student-Teacher/Text	0.042*	0.042*	0.001**
II-Wilcoxon	Student-Teacher/Text/Student	0.042*	0.109	0.118

** highly significant
* significant -Level of test 5%

We see that all three groups of teachers spent significantly more time (P-value <5%) on the COLT subcategory 'Teacher/Text' compared to the other COLT subcategories as shown by the I-Wilcoxon Test. The test also indicates highest significance in the time spent on Teacher/Text by teachers with the least experience (P-value<5%) as indicated by the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test (see Tables 41, 44 and 47 appendix 10). The II-Wilcoxon Test showed significantly (P-value<5%) more time spent on 'Teacher/Text/Student' compared to 'Student' COLT subcategories for teachers with the most experience (see Table 42 appendix 10 for the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test). The contribution of experience to the amount of time teachers spent on the COLT subcategories is shown in Table 5.21.

Table 5.21 Differences in time spent on Content Control for teachers with different experiences

Test	COLT Subcategories	P-Value
Kruskal Wallis	Teacher/Text	0.370
	Teacher/Text/Student	0.342
	Student	0.055

** highly significant
* significant- level of test 5%

There is insufficient evidence to support the contribution of experience to the difference in the time allocated to each COLT subcategory at 5% level of significance.

5.4 Student modality

This category, as discussed in Chapter Four, focuses on what students were doing during the activity observed and is divided into four subcategories: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. These skills were coded separately and in combination. I coded 'Listening' alone when pupils listened to the tape or to the teacher with their books closed. 'Speaking', however, was not coded alone. I coded 'Reading' alone during silent reading and I coded 'writing' alone when pupils copied from the blackboard or did their handwriting practice. As discussed in Chapter Four, I added two more categories: 'Combination with speaking' and 'Other combinations'. If learners were asked, for example, to listen, point, and say, I coded it under 'Combinations with speaking'. If learners were asked to listen and write, then I coded it under 'Other combinations'. The reason for separating speaking from other skills was to find out whether speaking was only getting the same amount of focus as other skills or was practiced more. The assumption was that a communicative classroom would spend more time on aural-oral skills where pupils interact in pairs and groups through different information-gap activities (Sharpe, 2001).

'Student Modality' shows the amount of classroom time spent on the four skills. As discussed in Chapter Two, the language-centred methods of teaching, e.g. GTM and ALM, are used to teach skills separately. In real life, these skills are integrated and a learner-centred communicative method therefore integrates skills. Classroom observation reveals teachers' practices towards the integration or segregation of these skills. I start by discussing the results in relation to teachers' Education background for the same reasons discussed above, where it is hypothesized that teachers with an Education background will be more learner-centred than those with no Education background. Learner-centred behaviour was measured by the amount of time teachers spent on integrating skills with speaking compared to spending classroom time on one skill at the expense of others, especially speaking. The same tests were used to look for significant differences in the amount of time spent on Student Modality for teachers with an Education background, as shown in Table 5.22.

Table 5.22 Differences in the amount of time spent on Student Modality for teachers with Education background

Test		P-Value
Friedman		0.000 **
I-Wilcoxon	Listening - Combination with Speaking	0.001**
	Speaking - Combination with Speaking	0.001**
	Reading - Combination with Speaking	0.001**
	Writing - Combination with Speaking	0.001**
	Other Combination – Listening	0.003**
	Speaking - Other Combination	0.001**
	Reading - Other Combination	0.001**
	Writing - Other Combination	0.001**
II-Wilcoxon	Other Combination - Combination with Speaking	0.001**

** highly significant
* significant- level of test 5%

Sufficient evidence was found to conclude that the time allocated to each COLT subcategory by the group of teachers with an Education background was significantly different (P-value<5%) among the COLT subcategories as shown by the Friedman Test. Because the Friedman Test results were significant, a multiple comparison was conducted between pairs of 'Combination with Speaking' with the other COLT subcategories, as well as 'Other combinations' with the other COLT subcategories. As a result 'Combination with speaking' and 'Other combinations' subcategories show significantly more time spent on them (P-value<5%) by teachers with an Education background compared with the other COLT subcategories, according to the I-Wilcoxon Test and the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test (see Tables 51 and 52 appendix 10). The II-Wilcoxon Test showed significantly more time (P-value<5%) spent on 'Combination with speaking' compared to 'Other combination'. Table 5.23 below shows the test results for teachers with no Education background.

Table 5.23 Differences in the amount of time spent on Student Modality for teachers with no Education background

Test		P-Value
Friedman		0.000 **
I-Wilcoxon	Listening - Combination with Speaking	0.012*
	Speaking - Combination with Speaking	0.012*
	Reading - Combination with Speaking	0.012*
	Writing - Combination with Speaking	0.012*
	Other Combination - Listening	0.018*
	Speaking - Other Combination	0.012*
	Reading - Other Combination	0.012*
	Writing - Other Combination	0.012*
II-Wilcoxon	Other Combination - Combination with Speaking	0.012*

** highly significant
* significant-level of test 5%

There is sufficient evidence to conclude that the time spent on each COLT subcategory by teachers with no Education background is significantly different (P-value<5%) as shown by the Friedman Test. Because the Friedman Test results were significant, a multiple comparison was conducted between each pair of 'Combination with speaking' with the other COLT subcategories and between 'Other combinations' and the other COLT subcategories. Results showed significantly more time (P-value<5%) spent on 'Combination with speaking' and 'Other combinations' subcategories, compared to the other subcategories, by teachers with no Education background, as shown by the I-Wilcoxon Test, where more time was spent on 'Combination with speaking' and 'Other combinations' as indicated by the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test (see Table 54 appendix 10). The II-Wilcoxon Test results were significant in detecting the difference between the time spent on 'Combination with speaking' and 'Other combinations', where more time was spent on 'Combination with speaking' (see Tables 54 and 55 appendix 10).

The Mann-Whitney Test is used to detect the difference between teachers with Education and with no Education background with respect to time spent on the same COLT subcategory by each group of teachers as shown in Table 5.24 below.

Table 5. 24 Differences in time spent on Student Modality between teachers with Education and with no Education background

Mann-Whitney Test	P-Value
Listening	0.205
Speaking	1.000
Reading	0.048*
Writing	0.661
Combinations With Speak	0.005**
Other Combination	0.056

** highly significant
* significant-level of test 5%

The results of the Mann-Whitney Test indicate a significant difference (P-value<5%) between the two groups of teachers with respect to time spent on 'Reading' and 'Combination with speaking', respectively, where significantly more time is spent on 'Combination with speaking' by teachers with no Education background, as indicated by mean ranks (see Table 56 appendix 10). According to these results, we can conclude that there is no evidence to support the contribution of an Education background on the difference in time spent on the above COLT subcategories. Therefore, the first hypothesis is rejected. We turn now to the results when teachers were grouped by experience.

Table 5.25 Significance of time spent on Student Modality according to experience shown by the Friedman Test

Test	Most	Medium	Least
Friedman	P-Value	P-Value	P-Value
	0.000**	0.001**	0.000**

** highly significant
* significant- level of test 5%

Table 5.25, shows that for these COLT subcategories teachers with varying experience were significantly different (P-value<5%) on the time they allocated to them. The I-Wilcoxon and II-Wilcoxon tests are presented in Table 5.26 below.

Table 5.26 Differences in the amount of time spent on Student Modality according to experience

Test	COLT Subcategories	Most	Medium	Least
		P-Value	P-Value	P-Value
I- Wilcoxon	Listening - Combination with Speaking	0.043*	0.043*	0.001**
	Speaking - Combination with Speaking	0.043*	0.043*	0.001**
	Reading - Combination with Speaking	0.043*	0.043*	0.001**
	Writing - Combination with Speaking	0.043*	0.043*	0.001**
	Other Combination - Listening	0.068	0.225	0.002**
	Speaking - Other Combination	0.043*	0.043*	0.001**
	Reading - Other Combination	0.043*	0.043*	0.001**
	Writing - Other Combination	0.043*	0.080	0.002**
II- Wilcoxon	Other Combination - Combination with Speaking	0.043*	0.043*	0.001**

**highly significant
* significant-level of test 5%

Because these differences were based on the Friedman Test, a multiple comparison was conducted among each pair of 'Combination with speaking' with every one of the other COLT subcategories, and also 'Other combination' with every one of the other COLT subcategories. As shown, significantly more time (P-value<5%) was spent on 'Combination with speaking' and 'Other combination' subcategories by teachers with different experiences, as compared to the other COLT subcategories, as indicated by I-Wilcoxon Test and by mean ranks (see Tables 58, 61 and 64 appendix 10). As shown on Table 5.26 above, teachers with the least experience spent significantly more time on 'Combination with Speaking' and 'Other Combination' subcategories compared to the other groups of teachers. The II-Wilcoxon Test shows that significantly more time was spent on 'Combination with speaking' compared with 'Other Combination' as shown by the mean ranks (see Tables 59, 62 and 65 appendix 10). Results of Kruskal Wallis test are presented in Table 5.27 below.

Table 5.27 Differences in time spent on Student Modality for teachers with different experiences

Test	COLT Subcategories	P-Value
Kruskal Wallis	Listening	0.330
	Speaking	1.000
	Reading	0.447
	Writing	0.248
	Combination With Speaking	0.932
	Other Combination	0.755

Although there were significant and highly significant differences in the time each group spent on each COLT subcategory, e.g. Combination with speaking, compared to the others, e.g. Listening, as shown by the I- and II- Wilcoxon Tests above, the Kruskal Wallis Test showed no significant differences (P-value>5%) in the time all three groups of teachers spent on the same COLT subcategory, as shown in Table 5.27 above. According to these results, we conclude that there is no evidence to support the contribution of experience on the difference in time spent on the above COLT subcategories by the three groups of teachers. Therefore, the second hypothesis is rejected.

5.5 Discussion

> Any study that claims that teachers are adhering to a certain method, without rigorous definition of that method and classroom observation, is ultimately of little value (Pennycook, 2002:61).

This chapter aimed at describing the communicative orientation of EFL primary classrooms in Kuwait by comparing groups of teachers with different Education backgrounds and experience to find out whether teachers differ in the amount of time they spent on the COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) Observation Scheme categories. The literature suggests that teacher education plays an important role in teacher development (Gower & Walters, 1983; Thompson, 1998; Gold, 1999; Darling-Hammond, 1999; Ducharme, 1999; Darling-Hammond & Hammerness, 2005). It is hypothesized that teachers with an Education background would be more learner-centred than teachers with no Education background. The literature also suggests that experience plays an important role in teacher development (Hughes, 2001; Castejon & Martinez, 2001; Hogan, Rabinowitz, & Craven, 2003). It is hypothesized that teachers with the most and medium experience would be more learner-centred than those with the least experience. For example, learner-centred teachers would spend more time on Student-Student/Class interaction, on 'Group' work, on Choral, and on 'Individual' activities than on Teacher-Student/Class interaction. They would spend more time on 'Function' and on other meaning-focused activities, e.g. 'Set book content', 'Silent reading', and 'Oral presentation' compared to 'Form'. They would spend more time giving some responsibility to their learners over their learning by spending more time on 'Teacher/Text/Student' and 'Student'

compared to 'Teacher/Text'. Finally, they would spend more time on combining skills with speaking compared to segregating skills.

In this section I am going to start by giving a brief summary of the classroom observation results. Then I am going to start discussing the COLT categories in the same order as they were presented in this Chapter. I will discuss each COLT category, first in relation to teachers' Education background to find out whether there is an effect of teachers' Education backgrounds on the time they spent on the different subcategories. The rationale for starting with Education background is because we have concrete evidence of the kind of pre-service and in-service training teachers had. I will then discuss the same category in relation to experience. I will provide quotes from taped classroom observations to back up my discussion and give examples of the kind of interaction that was going on between teachers and their pupils. During the discussion, I will refer to the textbook, Teacher's Guide, and assessment, discussed in Chapter Three, to find out about their contribution in relation to the way teachers' behave. Finally, I will end with the reasons for needing to interview teachers and find out more about their behaviour in relation to the constraints (if any) put on them. The following table will summarize the main classroom observation results as to the contribution of an Education background and experience on teachers' behaviour according to the Mann-Whitney Test and Kruskal Wallis Test. It is important to note that the raw data was analyzed in two different ways. First, the Mann-Whitney and Kruskal Wallis Tests compared the same COLT subcategory across groups of teachers, which is represented by Table 5.28 below. The I- and II-Wilcoxon Tests compare every pair of the COLT subcategories within groups to find out which subcategory received more time compared with the other subcategories.

Table 5.28 Summary of classroom observation results for the same subcategory across groups of teachers based on the Mann-Whitney and the Kruskal Wallis Tests

COLT Categories	Educational Background		Experience		
	With Ed. background	With No Ed. background	Most Experienced	Medium Experienced	Least Experienced
Participant Organization	**Significant time (P-value =.048) spent on Choral**	---	**Significant time (P-value =.037) spent on Teacher-Student/Class**	---	---
Content	---	**Significant time (P-value =.010) spent on Function**	---	---	---
Content Control	---	---	---	---	---
Student Modality	---	**Significant time (P-value =.048) spent on Reading and Combination with speaking (P-value=.005)**	---	---	---

According to the COLT category 'Participant Organization', it is hypothesized that teachers with an Education background would be more learner-centred than those with no Education background and would spend more time on 'Student-Student/Class', 'Group' 'Choral' and 'Individual' activities than on 'Teacher-Student/Class'. According to Table 5.28, (and Table 5.3) significantly more time was spent on 'Choral' by teachers with an Education background compared to teachers with no Education background. This could be the result of their Education in which they were taught modules such as 'Teaching English to Young Learners' 1 and 2. Here they learned about the characteristics of FL primary education and the young language learner and the techniques needed to enhance pupils' learning such as repetition especially in learning a foreign language. There is also 'Seminar=English to Young Learners' and their Teaching Practice (Practicum), where they observed other teachers teach using choral with beginners and young learners. The I-Wilcoxon Test, which compares Teacher-Student/Class with every one of the other categories within groups, showed that significantly more time was spent on Teacher-Student/Class compared with Student-Student/class, Group, Choral, and Individual within groups of teachers with Education and with no Education background (see Tables 5.1-5.2) where the teacher controls and initiates all interaction in the classroom. For example, the following interaction (coded from the tapes) between a teacher and a pupil took place after reading a dialogue with the whole class:

(1) T.2: When are they going to go to the Nature Park?
Pupil: Wednesday

Another example where the teacher revises a previous lesson:

(2) T.11: Come, Mariam. Ask me and say 'I need this book'.
Pupil: I need this book.

For all teachers, no time was spent on 'Group' work activities or 'Individual' activities.

Although the *Teacher's Guide* (2005) discussed in Chapter Three asks teachers to use groups:

> Projects are always carried out in groups.
>
> The aim of the projects is to allow groups of pupils to make, design, plan or discuss something together.
>
> At the end, pupils can explain what they have done and why they have done it. (2005: xi)

A learner-centred method would emphasize the role of oral skills and group work activities (Hardy, 2004). As for teachers with no Education background, Table 5.2 shows teachers spending a significant time on Teacher-Student/Class compared with the other COLT subcategories which reflect a non-learner-centred behaviour. Teachers with an Education background spent significantly more time on non-learner-centred techniques than those with no Education background as they spent significantly more time on Teacher-Student/Class. This is consistent with Chapman, Chen and Postiglione's (2000) findings in their study on the role of in-service training on improving teachers' content and pedagogical knowledge in China. They gave a questionnaire to 2,300 teachers teaching all grade levels and found that well-trained teachers exerted more control over their classrooms and concluded that pre-service training showed little difference. They quoted Chapman and Snyder (1992) trying to explain their findings from a classroom observation, that teachers with more training try to exert more control over their classrooms as it makes their job easier:

> Their training enables them to exercise better control, but that may come at the cost of deemphasizing some aspects of good teaching, particularly those aspects related to more active student participation. Thus, teacher training is valuable, but it can also be problematic. (Chapman, Chen & Postiglione, 2000:303)

And the teachers in this study have been taught the topic 'classroom management' during their 'Seminar=Teaching English to Young Learners' class. As for experience,

Table 5.28 and Table 5.7 report the Kruskal Wallis Test results which showed significantly more time was spent on Teacher-Student/Class by most experienced teachers compared with the other groups. However, no differences were found for the other subcategories between teachers with different experiences. According to the I-Wilcoxon Test (see Table 5.6), all three groups of teachers spent most of the classroom time on Teacher-Student/Class, compared to the other subcategories, which reflects a non learner-centred behaviour. This is not in accordance with research that shows experienced teachers to encourage active involvement of their learners helping them to explore things by themselves and encourage interaction between them (Castejon & Martinez, 2001). It could be that the more experience teachers get, the more they have knowledge regarding how to conduct their classrooms, including showing control over their learners. It could also be the result of the culture, as old teachers are thought to be knowledgeable and therefore control everything that goes on in class. Compared with Teacher-Student/Class category, teachers did not spend time on Group and Individual COLT subcategories.

Overall, analysis of the Participant Organization COLT category, suggests that teachers' practices do not map onto a CLT-based learner-centred method which, according to Spada and Frohlich (1995), promotes student-student interaction and group work activities to develop pupils' communicative competence. This finding is consistent with Al-Khwaiter (2001), discussed in Chapter Two, who used classroom observations, interviews, and questionnaires to investigate the implementation of a CLT Method by teachers in primary, intermediate, and secondary schools in Qatar, and found that the typical mode of interaction in ELT classrooms is highly teacher-centred.

As for the COLT category 'Content', it is hypothesized that teachers with an Education background would be more learner-centred, spending more time on Function, Silent Reading, Oral Presentation, and Set book content than on Form. Table 5.28, and Tables 5.11-5.12, showed that significantly more time was spent on Function by teachers with no Education background compared with those with Education background. Teachers with no Education background seem to implement learner-centred techniques more than those with no Education background. We can conclude that there is no contribution by an Education background on Content. The I-

Wilcoxon Test, which compared Form with every one of the other subcategories within groups, found significantly more time was spent on Form by teachers with an Education background and with no Education background compared with the other subcategories (see Tables 5.9 & 5.10). This reflects a non learner-centred behaviour. For teachers with an Education background, this could be the result of modules such as 'Seminar=Teaching English to Young Learners' that teachers had during their pre-service training in methodology where they learnt about how to teach the different sub-skills (see Chapter Three). It could also be the result of observing other teachers teach during their Practicum. The following interaction, taken from the taped material, between a teacher and a pupil shows how teachers focus on form:

(5) T.14: Who can spell this word? Who can spell it?
Pupil: C-u-t/ d-o-w-n
T.14: Cut down. Very good.

Another interaction between another teacher and pupil:

(6) T. 3: Why [do] Nasser and Sami [have] capital letters?
Pupil: Because they are names.

And another example:

(7) T. 7: When you want to talk about your future plans you use ' going to'.
Pupil: I'm going to drive in the bike today.
T. 7: You can't use '-ing' unless you have [...] am/is/are.

Also, the amount of time spent on Form echoes the kind of exercises and activities used in the textbook and workbook, with those focusing on form being more in quantity than those focusing on practicing functions/communicative acts and engaging students in meaningful interaction with each other (see Chapter Three). Knowing that children will be motivated to learn if they are enjoying themselves (Palim & Power, 1990) makes learner or learning-centred methods suited to children. Cameron (2001) says that focusing on the language might not be appropriate at this age and Klippel (1993) believes that learning a foreign language is not just memorizing words, it is an education experience. In her PhD study, Al-Haji (2004) found, after video recording EFL primary grade 1 school children in Kuwait, that teachers spent a great deal of time correcting pupils' pronunciation.

During classroom observation, teachers were seen using language-centred techniques such as PPP (although it is used with weak CLT, it is originally a language-centred technique) and aspects of language-centred methods such as ALM, and TPR. This also reflects the kind of assessment used where pupils are made to practice, repeat, and memorize lists of vocabulary and structures, as well as spelling, to be reproduced through discrete point tests where they either fill in the blanks, match, choose from three answers, or complete sentences, etc. (see Chapter Three). If curriculum goals and programme objectives aim for communicative competence, how can this aim be fulfilled when focus is mainly on form/language and on passing exams that are mainly language-focused? Especially as classrooms show teachers in control, initiating all classroom interaction, using lots of correction, drilling, and asking pupils to practice and repeat everything they hear.

As for experience, results show no influence from experience on the difference in time spent on the COLT subcategories related to Content, as shown in Table 5.28 and Table 5.15. The I-Wilcoxon Test, comparing Form with the other subcategories, found significant differences in the time teachers spent on Form compared with the other subcategories. Teachers, no matter what their experience, spent most of the time on Form, which reflects a non learner-centred behaviour, compared to the time they spent on Function, silent reading, set book content and Oral presentation. This is the result of the kind of exercises and activities in the textbook and workbook that focus on practicing Form for its own sake (see Chapter Three). Another explanation is that assessment is form-focused and teachers are usually the ones to blame for pupils' low achievement

> Society has a tendency to blame teachers for the students' social and psychological problems and for the weaknesses in their academic achievement (Al-Sharaf, 2006:106)

The category 'Content control' shows who is in control of lesson content. It is divided into three sub-categories. It is hypothesized that teachers with an Education background would be more learner-centred than those with no Education background, and would spend more time on 'Teacher/Text/Student' and 'Student' than on 'Teacher/Text'. Table 5.28 above and Table 5.18 showed no contribution of Education to the difference in time spent on 'Content Control' subcategories for both groups, i.e. both groups spent similar time on those subcategories. This means teachers, no matter

what their Education background is, prefer to control their classrooms. The I-Wilcoxon Test (see Table 5.16) showed teachers with an Education background spending significantly more time on 'Teacher/Text' compared with the other COLT subcategories and the same for teachers with no Education background. This reflects a non learner-centred behaviour. Crawford (2001), discussed in Chapter Two, has reported in her study on primary school teachers in Taiwan that because teachers rely on textbooks in the classroom observed, there was little evidence of the pupils' individualization where students were speaking as themselves and choosing what they would say. Brewster, Ellis, and Girard (2004),[1] who write for children, refer to Teacher/Text as teaching-centred and it means

> The teacher controls the actions in the classroom, does a lot of the talking by explaining, giving directions and asking lots of questions which pupils answer. (2004:41)

They further add

> This may mean the pupils have little chance to do more than repeat what the teacher says and have no opportunities for real interaction. (2004:41)

However, the role of the teacher, as discussed in Chapter Two, in a learner or learning-centred method has been defined as a guide supervising and giving help when needed (Savignon, 1997, 2002; Gebhard, 2006). It does not mean that a teacher does not teach, but her role becomes less dominant when she gives more control to students, helping them whenever they need help or when she sees it necessary. Teachers in this study have learnt about CLT in their methodology classes and their Applied Linguistics class and read Littlewood (1981) as well as Brumfit (1991) and Richards and Rodgers' (1986) book *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* and therefore are expected to know about the role of the teacher in a communicative classroom. As for the effect of training on teachers' behaviour, Chapman, Chen, and Postiglione (2000) say that teacher training helps teachers better control their classrooms but this control may work in the wrong direction when it prevents pupils' active participation in classroom interaction. This control was clearly seen in classroom observation and in the taped material. For example, Teacher 2 tells pupils to listen to the taped material again while following in their books and repeat after it

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[1] Teachers read the same textbook in their 'Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Young Learners' (2) course.

(9) T 2: We are going to listen to this again and we are going to repeat sentence by sentence. Ok?

Another teacher, Teacher 3, asks pupils to open their books on an exercise and she reads the question and translates it in Arabic and says in Arabic and English the kind of tense (past continuous) that is the focus of the exercise.

(10) T 3: Look at the question. What were they doing when Sami scored a goal?

After reading a story in a dialogue form the teacher asks:

(14) T.23: What do they usually drink? Pepsi, Juice, fruit, water?
Pupil: Water.

Another teacher reads the vocabulary from the board and asks pupils to repeat after her

(15) T.21: Top
Pupils: Top
T.21: Bottom
Pupils: Bottom
T. 21: Main pillar
Pupils: Main pillar
T. 21: Five pillars
Pupils: Five pillars

(16) T.16: [Do] we use 'have' in the answer or 'had'?
Pupils: Had (in choral)
T.16: Again the answer.
Pupil: They had lunch at the beach (in choral).
T.16: very good.

The technique used is 'ask-answer-feedback' which is mainly used in a language-centred method and similar to Skinner's stimulus-response-reinforcement and to ALM Method (see Chapter Two). Teachers in this study have been introduced, during their 'Language Acquisition' class, to behaviourism and Skinners' theory. This finding is consistent with other studies around the world, such as Crawford (2001) in Taiwan, discussed in Chapter Two, as well as Al-Haji (2004), mentioned above, who observed grade one primary classrooms in Kuwait and reported that there were no instances of pupil-initiated interaction and that most of pupils' talk time was spent on answering questions. This is similar to findings of other researchers (see e.g. Pontefract & Hardman, 2005 on Kenyan primary schools). Pupils need to be encouraged to speak more with the help of the teacher. Vygotsky (1978), discussed in Chapter Two, in his theory about the 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD) says that children can do

much more with the help of someone more knowledgeable than themselves than they can do alone. Teachers in this study have been introduced to Vygotsky's theory during their 'Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Young Learners (2)' course where they read Brewster, Ellis and Girard (1991) who discussed Vygotsky's theory. Although the procedure of ask-answer-feedback helps to make students accurate and prepare them for the exam, it will not alone make them fluent. Brewster, Ellis and Girard (2004) say that teachers need to create a balance

> Teachers need to create a balance in their classrooms between providing support and providing a challenge. If all language work is over-guided then it becomes too easy, safe or repetitive. (2004:40)

When balancing a teaching/teacher-centred method with a learning or learner-centred method, pupils will

> have a chance to work on tasks in order to engage in organized talk with each other, that is to use language in a less controlled, more creative way. (2004:41)

The result is that students are encouraged to be more independent. According to classroom observations, teachers controlled the topics of discussion, and initiated all discourse and turn taking in the classroom. An explanation for teachers' behaviour could be in the technique used, i.e. PPP, where teachers need to present and practice everything with pupils. It could also be the testing system which focuses on memorization of content, vocabulary, and structure. Teachers spent classroom time helping their pupils memorize the information for the test (see Chapter Three). Although, the *Teacher's Guide*, as discussed in Chapter Three, asks teachers to be in control of content and to initiate all discussion in the classroom, i.e. to present and practice structure, vocabulary, and function. It also asks teachers to let pupils work in pairs/groups to answer an exercise or guess words meanings before the teacher interferes, i.e. a learner-centred method. For example, the introduction of the *Teacher's Guide* says

> Also give them the opportunity to ask questions. All too often in the classroom the person who gets the most practice is the teacher. (*Teacher's Guide*, 2005: xiii)

Classroom observation, however, showed that students were rarely left alone to do anything and all activities/exercises were done as a whole class with the teacher in

control, i.e. a language-centred method. An explanation for teachers' behaviour is provided by Brewster, Ellis, and Girard (2004) when they said that teachers

> May feel threatened if they are no longer so clearly in control and learners may suddenly have freedoms or responsibilities they are not used to. There maybe complaints from other teachers who find the classroom next door too noisy. (2004:43).

The fact that teachers exert so much control over their classrooms is not unique; teachers in other parts of the world seem to do the same. For example, Al-Khwaiter (2001), discussed in Chapter two, found similar findings in his study on 18 Qatari classrooms. He found that all teachers dominated classroom activities indirectly through repetitive insistent questioning during classroom activities. His results also showed that the typical mode of interaction in ELT classrooms in Qatar is highly teacher-centred. It is important to note that this is not simply a Gulf state phenomenon; other studies around the world (see Chapter Two) have reported similar observations. The question is how national curriculum goals and programme objectives can achieve communicative competence under such control.

Similar findings were reported by Al-Haji (2004) in her study on EFL primary grade 1 pupils in Kuwait, who found that, although 42.8% of the teachers agreed that children should be allowed to choose their own topics for discussion, she did not see any instances of it in any of the classes she observed. The *Teacher's Guide*, discussed in Chapter Three, asks teachers to give some control over to their students

> See what they can answer with books closed. They should also be encouraged to compare and discuss answers with a partner. (2005: vi)

> Encourage pupils to ask you or their partners questions about listening texts. As much as possible let the lesson become pupil-centred: encourage pupils to interact with each other in groups or pairs. (2005: vii)

According to experience, it is hypothesized that the most and medium experienced teachers compared to the least experienced teachers would be more learner-centred and would spend more time on 'Teacher/text/Student' and 'Student' than on 'Teacher/Text'. Table 5.28 above and Table 5.21 showed no contribution of experience to the difference in time spent on 'Content Control' for all the three groups

of teachers. This means that all teachers, no matter what their experience is, exert too much control over their classrooms. This is not in accordance with the literature

> The expert teachers' conceptions of children's learning emphasize the importance of active involvement and the value of exploration in open-ended activities. (Castejon & Martinez, 2001:121)

The I-Wilcoxon Test results further showed all three groups spending significant time on 'Teacher/Text' compared with every one of the other subcategories, with the least experienced group spending a highly significant time on it, as shown in Table 5.20. This is in accordance with the literature (Castejon & Martinez, 2001)

> The novice teacher is at first more authoritarian and gives more importance to the disciplinary control. (2001:121)

Under the category 'Student Modality', both 'Combinations with speaking' and 'Other combinations' would reflect a learner-centred method. The National Curriculum, as well as the *Teacher's Guide*, as discussed in Chapter Three, aim for a learner-centred method that integrates the four skills:

> Integration is also used with all the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking (2005: xii).

However, exams, as seen in Chapter Three, test skills separately, e.g. there is no listening or speaking component in written exams, whereas the activities and exercises in the textbook, integrate two or three skills together, e.g. Listen, point and say. It is hypothesized that teachers with an Education background would spend more time on combining skills than on teaching them separately and more than teachers with no Education background. Table 5.28 above and Table 5.24 showed teachers with no Education background spending significantly more time on 'Reading', i.e. silent reading, and on 'Combination with speaking' compared to teachers with an Education background. Again, there is no contribution from Education to 'Student Modality' and hypothesis one is rejected. Overall, teachers integrate skills that reflect their textbooks, that integrate skills as discussed in Chapter Three, and their training such as 'Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Young Learners (2)' course for primary Education teachers and 'ELT Methodology (I) and (II)' for those with non primary Education. They also have been introduced to CLT and the Kuwaiti 'integrated approach' during the Longman sessions. As for silent reading, the *Teacher's Guide* asks them to encourage pupils to read silently

> Pupils should initially read the text silently. In this way they can absorb information at their own speed. Such independence is very important. (2005: viii)

With regard experience, it is hypothesized that those with the most and medium experience would be more learner-centred spending more time on 'Combination with speaking' and 'Other combinations' than those with the least experience. Table 5.28 and Table 5.27 showed no contribution from experience on 'Student Modality' and hypothesis two is rejected. The I-Wilcoxon Test showed all teachers spend significantly more time on 'Combination with speaking' and 'Other combinations' compared with the other subcategories, with the least experienced group spending significantly more time on them than the other groups of teachers. This can be explained by the fact that the textbook and workbook, as well as the *Teacher's Guide,* discussed in Chapter Three, integrate the four skills in most of the exercises and activities.

In summary, focus on accuracy and a language-centred method is the norm more than focus on fluency and a learner-centred method for reasons that have been discussed in Chapter Three in relation to the textbooks and assessment. According to a learner-centred method (see Chapter Two), focus is on form and function to achieve fluency and accuracy; this is also stated in the *Teacher's Guide* (2005) discussed in Chapter Three

> To ensure that the pupils will learn to use English both fluently and accurately, the *Fun with English* syllabus has been designed according to an integrated approach incorporating both structural and communicative methodology. (2005: i)

To achieve fluency, more time is spent on student/student and student/class interaction (S-S/C) and more time on group work activities, more discussion of function where meaning is emphasized over form, more learner-centred activities where students share in controlling content, e.g. journal writing, and more time to spend on integrating skills. Although teaching, as seen above, is teacher-centred and form-focused, I was interested to find out which of the learner-centred subcategories teachers spent time on compared with other learner-centred subcategories. I found out, as shown in Tables 5.1, 5.2 and 5.6 and for 'Participant Organization', that significantly more time was spent on Student-Student/Class compared to 'Group' and 'Individual' for all groups of teachers. The question is why teachers spend more time

on 'S-S/C' rather than 'Group' and 'Individual'. As for 'Content', shown in Tables 5.9, 5.10 and 5.14, significantly more time was spent on 'Set book/Comprehension questions' compared to 'Function', 'Reading silently', and 'Oral presentation' for all teachers. For 'Content Control', shown in Tables 5.16, 5.17 and 5.20, significantly more time was spent on 'Teacher/Text/Student' compared to 'Student' for all the teachers. And finally, for 'Student Modality', shown in Tables 5.22, 5.23 and 5.26, significantly more time was spent on 'combination with speaking' compared to 'Other combination' for all teachers.

As seen in Chapter Two, we defined a learner-centred method and a language-centred method, which is a prerequisite before observing teachers' behaviour (Pennycock, 2002), to find out which method teachers were implementing. COLT categories were the criterion used to measure teachers' behaviour, whether towards a learner-centred method or a language-centred method. Chapter Three provided an analysis of the *Curriculum Document*, the Textbook/materials, assessment, and teacher training programmes. A mismatch was found. Teachers are not doing what the *Teachers' Guide* is asking them to do and they are not applying their own training. We can't make assumptions or conclusions unless we hear the teachers. We can only see part of the picture. We still do not know why teachers behave the way they do, i.e. why they revert to language-centred methods when the *Teacher's Guide,* as well as the *National Curriculum* and teacher training programmes, point toward a CLT-based learner-centred method. The results of this study show no contribution from Education on teachers' practice towards a learner-centred method which they have been prepared to implement during their pre-service and in-service training. We need to find out why this is the case. The next chapter will focus on teachers' interviews, where teachers will explain why they spend more time on some COLT categories than others. Interview questions are very much related to the topics discussed in COLT, which makes it easy to map teachers' answers to their classroom behaviour and understand why teachers revert back to old-fashioned methods of teaching. It could also reveal other factors that are beyond the focus of this thesis, but might be worth further investigation, such as the effect of culture, traditions, and politics on the educational system in Kuwait.

Chapter Six
Teachers' Interview Results

6.0 Introduction

Kuwait's curriculum, as seen in Chapter Three, states that a learner-centred method should be in use in primary English classrooms in Kuwait. According to a learner-centred method[1] it should combine a focus on linguistic forms and communicative functions through meaning-focused activities for the overall aim of achieving linguistic accuracy and communicative competence or fluency. Teachers' pre-service and in-service training, discussed in Chapter 3, shows that teachers are introduced to the main approaches and methods in foreign language teaching with specific focus on CLT and a learner-centred method. Chapter Five however, has shown that overall, teachers both with and without an Education background have implemented a non-learner-centred method, as results were either significant or highly significant in favour of practices that relate to a non-learner-centred method. The integration of skills, however, was implemented by all teachers. The general impression one gets from EFL primary classrooms in Kuwait, based on classroom observation as well as the examination of textbook/materials and assessment, is that they are teacher-centred and form-focused. This chapter aims to find out about teachers' beliefs "those beliefs that are based on information but not necessarily only on information" and knowledge "those beliefs that are obtained by reasoning about the available information, and nothing else" (Bonanno, 2002:0307) about CLT to explain teachers' classroom behaviour. Teachers with an Education background have been introduced to CLT during their pre-service training, e.g. in courses such as Applied Linguistics and Methods of Teaching English to Young Learners 1, and all teachers were introduced to CLT during their in-service training, e.g. Longman training course. Teachers with no Education background were further introduced to CLT during other in-service training courses such as Methods of Teaching English at the Primary Stage and a Training Course for New Teachers. Are there constraints on teachers' practice which observation failed to reveal? If teachers were introduced to a CLT-based learner-centred method, why is classroom practice language-focused? The literature discussed

[1] i.e. Weak CLT (Kumaravadivelu, 2006) (see Chapter 2).

in Chapter 2 has shown that the textbook, along with assessment, plays an important role in delivering a curriculum. Do teachers' beliefs and knowledge about these affect their practice? We can attempt to explain teachers' behaviour by allowing teachers to reflect on their own practice through interviewing them. Teachers' reports of their knowledge and beliefs about SLA theories and CLT will prompt them to reflect on their own practice and perhaps to question whatever is handed in to them as to its suitability to learners' age and level. To better understand how theory is realized in actual practice, it is useful to find out about teachers' beliefs about their own practice, that is, to link their training (see Chapter Three) with their practice (see Chapter Five).

This chapter will start with an overview of the seven main topics discussed in the interview questions (for a list of the interview questions see Chapter Four). Next, the main results will be presented by topic/theme, and teachers' responses to each question will be presented quantitatively with tables showing for each question the frequency counts of those who gave the same answer. Results will also be presented qualitatively as quotations from the actual interview data. At the end of each section there will be a summary of the main results of that section. The chapter will end with a discussion of the main findings and some concluding remarks.

Questions will be presented according to their topic/theme. There are seven main topics to cover the 35 questions. These topics cover SLA research and CLT as to the method teachers use in their classrooms, teachers' role, pupils' role and role of materials, the aim of which is to find out how much knowledge teachers retain from their training, their beliefs, whether these things affect their practice, and whether their perception of what they do matches with what they actually do. The topics are ordered based on their importance and how they relate to each other. The first topic to discuss is input in the classroom. The reason with starting with this topic is that input plays a crucial role in learning any language. Without input it will be hard to acquire a language (e.g. Winitz, 1981; Krashen, 1985). The next topic will be age. The reason that age is discussed next is that it is a prerequisite before discussing methods or materials as these things need to consider the age of the learner. Then I will discuss the topic of instruction; this is a big topic and it reflects teachers' methods with regard to what they do in the classroom as far as teaching grammar and other material. Other topics will follow on from this, so this is the topic I will begin the discussion with.

Next, I will discuss the topic of fluency and accuracy, and this can easily relate to what teachers said during the topic of instruction, therefore we can match it with their responses. Then I will discuss error correction, which relates to the previous topic of fluency and accuracy with regard to what teachers think and do. The topic of testing comes next to show how testing is conducted, as to what kind of tests are available and whether they match with the kind of instruction given. Finally, I will end with National Curriculum assumptions as to what is practical, given the way teaching is conducted as shown through all the previous topics. Questions in all the sections will be ordered as follows: first teachers' knowledge about SLA or CLT; followed by questions on practicality of CLT to focus on the constraints; and finally teachers' perception of their own practice. The rationale is to compare what they know with what they think is possible and with what they do. The aim is to look for consistency in teachers' answers and find out about the constraints. In the next section I will start presenting the results according to the topic of input.

6.1 Input in the classroom

Six questions fit under this category. The first question was "Which do you think is more important in learning a FL, listening or speaking? Which do you think comes first and why?" The reason I asked this question was to see if teachers are aware of the role of input in foreign language acquisition/learning (see Chapter Two). Teachers' answers were not uniform as the following table shows

Table 6.1 Teachers' responses to the role of input in foreign language learning

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
ill more important						
ening and speaking	52%	47%	50%	40%	60%	47%
ening	35%	40%	37%	40%	40%	38%
aking	13%	13%	13%	20%	0%	15%

More than half the total number of teachers (with more teachers from the medium experienced group) said that both listening and speaking are important. For example, teacher 6 [medium experienced and with Education background] said:

Both are important.

Only a small number of teachers (35%) said listening was more important. Teacher 20 [least experienced and with Education background] commented:

> Listening is more important as I learn by listening.

Still, three teachers said speaking was more important. Teacher 17 [least experienced with Education background] explained:

> Speaking is more important. Speaking, as our problem in the Gulf is with speaking and not listening.

It seems there isn't a complete unanimity with regard to importance of listening versus speaking. This is the reason why this question is posed this way to find out whether teachers see both as important but it seems half of them did not.

When teachers were further asked "Which do you think comes first?" most teachers' said listening, as the following table shows.

Table 6.2 Teachers' responses to the role of input in foreign language learning

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
'hich comes first?						
stening	91%	87%	100%	80%	100%	92%
)eaking	9%	13%	0	20%	0	8%

No big differences were seen between those with an Education background and those with no Education background. Teacher 23 [least experienced and with no Education background] explained:

> Listening comes first as she acquires the skill then produces it.

A few of those with an Education background said speaking came first. Teacher 3 [most experienced and with Education background] said in her response:

> Speaking first because through speaking she understands as she knows the words but listening without understanding she will not respond.

When teachers were asked "why?" most said that listening comes first to get used to the sounds, as shown in the following table.

Table 6.3 Teachers' responses to the role of input in foreign language learning

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
Why?						
Get used to the sounds	91%	87%	100%	80%	100%	92%
Through speaking we interact with others	9%	13%	0	20%	0	8%

Teacher 16 [least experienced and with Education background] said:

> Because listening helps identify how native speakers speak so she tries to imitate them and her ears get used to the sounds so she can speak fluently.

Teachers' knowledge as to the importance of both listening and speaking was not consistent although they agreed that listening came first and gave reasons. Still, teachers' knowledge is intact and reflects their Education background and their in-service training. This question echoes the pre-service training for those with an Education background and courses such as 'Language Acquisition' where their studies were about the acquisition of the native language. In 'Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Young Learners (1) and (2) they were introduced to FL methods such as the Natural Approach and the Communicative Approach and learnt about teaching language skills such as listening and speaking to young learners.

Then teachers were asked "do you think primary EFL learners should be pushed to communicate in English from the beginning of language learning? Table 6.4 below shows teachers answers.

Table 6.4 teachers' responses to the role of input in foreign language learning

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
hed to communicate from the inning						
	78%	67%	100%	80%	80%	77%
ouraged not pushed	22%	33%	0%	20%	20%	23%

A large number of teachers agreed that primary EFL learners should be pushed to communicate in English from the beginning of language learning. Teacher 13 [least experienced with no Education background] said:

> [They should do so] from the beginning because if they learned it from primary it would be easier in later stages as they would not be shocked by it as something new.

Five teachers said that they should not force learners to speak, but should encourage them. All are with an Education background and with different experiences. Teacher 18 explained:

> Yes, but we do not force them, we encourage them. We need to train pupils from grade 1 to use the language even when they ask for permission to drink water.

In brief, a large number of teachers said learners should be pushed to communicate from the beginning of language learning. In the previous question teachers were nearly uniform in saying that listening should come first to help learners get used to the sounds. Teachers' answers are inconsistent in this regard. Still, a few of those with an Education background said learners should be encouraged and not pushed. Those who said they should be encouraged (T18, T10, T20, T21, and T4) realized the role of listening in language learning. Overall, teachers' answers reflect the courses they had at university where they studied Communicative Language Teaching', and in 'Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Young Learners' (1) and (2) they learnt about communicative competence and communicative performance. Also, the textbooks/materials, although it provides TPR activities such as listen and point or listen and do, it also provides activities such as look and say or ask and answer, where pupils are pushed to speak.

When teachers were asked "is it possible that EFL children would interact in English with each other if put in pairs and groups?"

Table 6.5 Teachers' responses to the role of input in foreign language learning

Categories	Total number of teachers **(N=23)**	Teachers **with** education background **(N=15)**	Teachers with **no** education background **(N=8)**	**Most** experienced **(N=5)**	**Medium** Experienced **(N=5)**	**Least** experienced **(N=13)**
English in pairs and groups						
only Arabic	48%	47%	50%	60%	60%	39%
Arabic and little English	39%	40%	37%	40%	40%	38%
y clever pupils use English	13%	13%	13%	0%	0%	23%

Almost half the teachers with Education background said pupils will only use Arabic with more than half the most experienced group. For example, teacher 1 [most experienced and with Education background] said:

> No, they speak Arabic. They speak English in front of the teacher only. This is because Arabic is faster. So group and pair work is not suitable for primary as they use their L1.

And teacher 9's [with Education background and medium experienced] comment on use of English was:

> Not all the time. I try to listen to them but they still use their L1.

While Teacher 17 [with Education background and least experienced] said it is:

> Possible with simple language and if we put clever pupils together, pupils can ask and answer in English but between the lines, they use Arabic because it is easier.

As seen, teachers, no matter what their Education background or experience, said that pupils would use Arabic once put in groups. This echoes one of the constraints on teaching English in a foreign language context where learners learn the language for 40 minutes a day and when there is hardly any contact with the language outside the classroom as teachers remarked above. English is taught as a subject in monolingual classrooms where both the teacher and pupils speak the same language. During their pre-service training teachers were introduced to the topic 'problems associated with teaching English to young learners' in 'Seminar=Teaching English to Young Learners'. In 'Methods of Teaching English to Young learners' teachers were also introduced to the topic 'TEFL problems in the primary stage' and the topic 'merits and demerits of early FL learning'. Teachers' answers to the previous question, i.e. pushing pupils to communicate, could solve this problem.

When asked "is it possible to speak English during the whole lesson without using your L1 with primary EFL beginners?" Roughly half the teachers (52%) said that it is not possible. Table 6.24 presents teachers' responses.

Table 6.6 Teachers' responses to the role of input in foreign language learning

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
Possible to speak English all the time						
t is not possible	52%	47%	63%	60%	40%	54%
t is possible	48%	53%	37%	40%	60%	46%

Teacher 15 [least experienced with no Education background] explained:

> No, not possible because they are at the beginning of language learning. It is possible in late intermediate and secondary school but not in primary. I can not go on without Arabic.

Still, others said it is possible to use English all the time. One of the teachers (T23), with no Education background and least experienced, commented:

> Yes. I always use English and I use gestures to show them how to do a game but I try to never use Arabic.

In short, teachers with an Education background believe that it is possible to use English all the time, as well as the medium experienced group, while a large number of those with no Education background, as well as the most and least experienced teachers, said it is not possible. Those who said it is not possible, contradict their answer in a previous question where they stated that listening comes first. However, teachers might be referring to constraints that I will discuss at the end of this chapter. For teachers with an Education background, they have been taught the role of input in foreign language learning in their courses in 'Language Acquisition' and 'Applied Linguistics'. They have been taught in their methodology courses to use strategies such as body language, gestures, drawings, objects, or pictures to put the foreign language in context to help pupils understand.

When teachers were asked "Do you speak English all the time with your learners, during classroom routines, management, and instructions?" Table 6.7 presents the results.

Table 6.7 Teachers' responses to the role of input in foreign language learning

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
Speaking English all the time						
Said they do not do it	78%	80%	75%	80%	80%	77%
Said they do	22%	20%	25%	20%	20%	23%

A large number of teachers, with and without an Education background and with different experiences, said they do not speak English all the time. Teacher 6 [medium experienced with Education background] commented:

> I always use English but as I said sometimes we use Arabic as some pupils do not follow if I use only English.

When teachers were asked above if it was possible to use English all the time with children, those with Education background (53%) said it was possible but when asked about what they actually do, most teachers (80%) said they do not speak English all the time. So, is it the case that in theory it is possible, but in actual practice they can not, because there are constraints put on learning English as a foreign language such as English being taught as a subject in monolingual classrooms (see Chapter Two). This will be discussed further below.

The next question under this topic was "do you use group and pair work activities in your lessons and when?" Teachers' answers were not uniform as shown below.

Table 6.8 Teachers' responses to the role of input in foreign language learning

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
of group and pair work						
l they use both groups and pairs	66%	67%	63%	60%	80%	62%
l they use only pairs	30%	33%	24%	40%	20%	30%
l they do not use any	4%	0%	13%	0%	0%	8%

A representative view, from teacher 13 [least experienced with no Education background] is as follows:

> Yes, I use groups during project work, for drawing and colouring. I use pairs during reading comprehension as they help each other in answering questions.

Teachers' responses are consistent with their responses to another question about the need to push learners to communicate. Still, when teachers were asked above "Is it possible that EFL children would interact in English with each other if put in pairs and groups?" 48% said they would only use Arabic and 39% said they would use little English and they would talk off task. The question is why use groups and pairs if pupils will use Arabic? Isn't the objective to develop their fluency in using English? Some teachers (30%) gave reasons for not using groups:

> Teacher 12: Curriculum is long and groups take time and I lose control over pupils.
>
> Teacher 14: Groups are noisy and I lose control of them as they speak a lot.
>
> Teacher 2: Groups are noisy and pupils talk more than they work.

These teachers said that they prefer pairs to groups. Teacher 11 [least experienced with Education background] reported:

> I distribute set book and grammar exercises and they answer together. I do not use groups; I usually use pairs.

However, one teacher (T22), [least experienced with no Education background], said she doesn't use any:

> We usually do the activity together and not in groups as pupils even in groups they work alone. No time for groups as curriculum is long. I always do the exercises with them and ask them individually to answer.

When teachers were further asked "when do you use group and pair work activities?" they gave more than one answer, and answers from different teachers sometimes overlap. But the activity that teachers often mentioned where groups and pairs were used was grammar exercises and worksheets (mentioned by ten teachers); then reading (mentioned by nine teachers); followed by question and answer (mentioned by seven teachers); then games (mentioned by six teachers); competition (by two teachers); and finally projects and journals (by one teacher). Seven of the twenty three teachers mentioned that groups make noise, waste time in moving chairs, use their L1, and talk off task, so they said they prefer pairs to groups.

In summary, teachers understand the role of listening in language learning but they believe that pupils should be pushed to communicate from the beginning. Still, they

reported that if put in pairs/groups pupils will use Arabic (their L1) and added that they (the teachers) can not use English all the time with their pupils because pupils do not understand.

6.2 Age

Under this topic, four questions were found to fit. Firstly: "Is there a difference between an adult and a child in learning a foreign language (FL)?" Teachers' answers are presented in Table 6.9 below.

Table 6.9 Teachers' responses to the topic of age

Categories	Total number of teachers **(N=23)**	Teachers **with** education background **(N=15)**	Teachers with **no** education background **(N=8)**	**Most** experienced **(N=5)**	**Medium** Experienced **(N=5)**	**Least** experienced **(N=13)**
Child-adult differences						
Differences favoring a child	70%	67%	75%	20%	100%	77%
Differences favoring an adult	30%	33%	25%	80%	0%	23%

A large number (70%) of teachers believe a child learns better than an adult. Teacher 12 [least experienced and with Education background] made the following point:

> A child acquires the accent and it is very difficult for an adult to learn the language and for some impossible.

As seen there are differences across the levels of experience. For example, teacher 5 [most experienced and with Education background] said:

> An adult can learn 10 words a day but a child can't learn so much. An adult remembers better than a child and if an adult wants to learn a language s/he will learn it.

This question is revealing as to what teachers know and believe. It is also of interest to this study as it is interested in young learners and knowing about how the differences between them and adults affect materials, methods, assessment, and teacher training. Although SLA research has shown adults to be better than children, most teachers (70%) believed that a child learns better than an adult, despite the fact that they, as discussed in Chapter Three, learned this during their courses in Applied Linguistics and Language Acquisition. Also, during Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Young Learners (1) and (2), they learned about characteristics of young learners and read books by Scott and Ytreberg (1990) *Teaching English to*

Children, for Foster (1990) *Communicative Competence of Young children* and for Krashen et al (1982) *Child-adult differences in second-language acquisition*, yet they still believe a child learns better than an adult.

And when teachers were asked "do you think CLT would be more suitable to a child than an adult and why?" More than half the teachers said it suits a child. Table 6.10 presents teachers' responses.

Table 6.10 teachers' responses to the topic of age

Categories	Total number of teachers **(N=23)**	Teachers **with** education background **(N=15)**	Teachers with **no** education background **(N=8)**	**Most** experienced **(N=5)**	**Medium** Experienced **(N=5)**	**Least** experienced **(N=13)**
uitability of CLT						
uits a child	61%	67%	50%	100%	60%	46%
uits an adult	17%	13%	25%	0%	20%	23%
uits both	22%	20%	25%	0%	20%	31%

There is a difference in Education background. For example, Teacher 6 [medium experienced and with an Education background] explained:

> It suits a child. S/He listens better and learns faster. S/He can speak and understand more vocabulary. S/He is not afraid to communicate or make errors and has more freedom than an adult.

But in another question on input they said that pupils will use Arabic if put in pairs/groups and teachers do not speak English all the time, because pupils do not understand. Those with no Education background varied in their answers, where some such as T13 [least experienced with no Education background] said:

> It suits an adult. You can talk about wider topics and s/he can negotiate with you.

while others, such as T14 [least experienced with no Education background], said:

> It suits both as they are both learning. Both need to communicate with others even an adult likes fun.

There is also variation in experience as shown in Table 6.10. And when teachers were asked "why?" they gave different reasons, as shown in the table below.

Table 6.11 Teachers' responses to the topic of age

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
Why suits a child?						
A child sociable	35%	39%	24%	40%	40%	30%
Difficult to explain grammar to a child	13%	13%	13%	40%	0	8%
A child learns better when s/he enjoys it	4%	7%	0	0	20%	0
You can control and mould the child	9%	7%	13%	20%	0	8%
Why suits an adult?						
An adult is aware of what s/he wants	4%	7%	0	0	0	8%
Why suits both?						
Both need linguistic background	22%	13%	37%	0	40%	23%
Both need to communicate	9%	7%	13%	0	0	15%
It focuses on oral aural skills	4%	7%	0	0	0	8%

Teacher 8's response [medium experienced and with no Education background] is representative of the 35% who said it suits a child because:

> a child is more sociable by nature and if you train him/her to work in pairs and groups s/he will grow up used to working in groups with others but an adult is just learning to work in groups so s/he will be shy and wouldn't like to work in groups or talk to others.

Teacher 4 [with an Education background and most experienced] gave another reason why it suits a child:

> because it is difficult to explain grammar to a child. Through CLT a child can understand more. But an adult can understand with other methods where we can explain grammar. I personally prefer to explain and give more details with grammar.

And teacher 18 [with an Education background and least experienced] said it suits a child because:

> you can shape the child. If you teach her/him accurately, s/he will learn it accurately.

Overall, a large number of those with an Education background, as well as all the most experienced teachers, believe CLT suits a child and they gave logical reasons. This is the result of their courses in Psychology and child development where they learnt about the psychology of learning and young learners' characteristics in their methodology courses. Most teachers remarked on children not being afraid to make errors, being more willing to take risks, and not being afraid to communicate. They also said that it is difficult to explain grammar to a child, which makes CLT more

suitable to a child, where children are engaged in meaningful activities, drawing, acting out, talking, listening, reading, and writing in meaningful context.

When they were asked "Is it possible to use authentic materials (stories, films, newspapers) with EFL young learners?", most teachers (91%) agreed that it is possible to use authentic materials with young learners. Table 6.12 shows teachers' responses.

Table 6.12 Teachers' responses to the topic of age

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
uthentic materials with children						
'es it is possible	91%	93%	87%	80%	100%	92%
lo it is not possible	9%	7%	13%	20%	0%	8%

This is inconsistent with their response on the topic of input above when they said that pupils will use Arabic in pairs/groups and the teacher can't speak English all the time and gave the reason that pupils do not understand. How can pupils understand authentic materials which are more difficult compared with their EFL textbooks? They further reported constraints on their practice such as time. Teacher 1 [with an Education background and most experienced] reported:

> Yes but there is no time as the curriculum is too long and we spend four days in one lesson.

They further point to other constraints against implementation of this aspect of CLT:

> Yes, but we do not have the time to apply it [use of authentic materials] and the Ministry of Education and the headmistress will not allow it. (T17)

> Yes, but we are under pressure of work. If a teacher only teaches, she can be creative. (T10)

> No, it is forbidden as I have to finish the curriculum. (T13)

And Teacher 3 [most experienced with Education background] further said:

> No, it is difficult and hard for them as they did not learn enough language.

When they were further asked "do you use authentic materials including audio visual aids with your learners? How often? Do your learners have any difficulties dealing with them?" A high percentage of teachers said that they use authentic materials in their lessons including audio visual aids. Table 6.13 shows teachers' responses.

Table 6.13 Teachers' responses to the topic of age

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experience (N=13)
Use of authentic materials						
Said they use authentic materials	70%	73%	62%	60%	60%	77%
Said they do not use any	30%	27%	38%	40%	40%	23%

A large number of those with an Education background and least experience said they used authentic materials. Teacher 18 [least experienced with Education background] commented:

> I use songs with grade 1 and stories with grades 4 and 5 but video is hard.

However, some of the teachers said they do not use authentic materials as they do not have time. Most of the teachers giving this response were those with no Education background and with most and medium experience. Teacher 7 [medium experienced with no Education background]said:

> I do not use any because of time.

As to how often teachers use authentic materials, for those who said that they do use them (70%) see Table 6.14 below.

Table 6.14 Teachers' responses to the topic of age

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experience (N=13)
How often?						
Sometimes	54%	52%	49%	40%	40%	61%
Always	4%	7%	0	0	20%	0
Usually	4%	0	13%	0	0	8%
Rarely	4%	7%	0	0	0	8%
Often	4%	7%	0	20%	0	0

When asked if their students have difficulties with authentic materials, teachers varied in their answers. Table 6.15 shows teachers' responses.

Table 6.15 Teachers' responses to the topic of age

Categories	Total number of teachers **(N=23)**	Teachers **with** education background **(N=15)**	Teachers with **no** education background **(N=8)**	**Most** experienced **(N=5)**	**Medium** Experienced **(N=5)**	**Least** experienced **(N=13)**
Learners having difficulties						
Said no difficulties	39%	40%	38%	20%	20%	54%
Said they have difficulties	31%	33%	24%	40%	40%	23%

Teacher 4 [most experienced with Education background] commented on whether her pupils have difficulties with authentic materials:

> No, they don't as I use simple stories where just a few words are new but they know or can guess the rest. The problem is we do not have time to do all this.

Still, some teachers reported their pupils having difficulties with authentic materials. For example, teacher 2 [most experienced with no Education background] said:

> Pupils have difficulty with the new vocabulary.

This is consistent with their previous answers about pupils using Arabic in groups/pairs and the teacher not being able to speak English all the time.

In summary, a large number of teachers (70%) believe a child learns better than an adult, but only some teachers believe that CLT suits a child, while others said it suits an adult. Still, 91% said that it is possible to use authentic materials with children but only 70% said that they do so. Those who said they do, said they only sometimes do it and varied in their answer as to whether pupils have difficulties. Some teachers reported constraints that might affect teachers' use of communicative activities in the classroom and will be discussed below.

6.3 Instruction

Nine questions fit under this topic. When I asked the teachers "Can learners acquire the rules of grammar subconsciously through just hearing input?" A large number of teachers said 'No' as shown in the table below.

Table 6.16 Teachers' responses to the topic of instruction

Categories	Total number of teachers (**N=23**)	Teachers **with** education background **(N=15)**	Teachers with **no** education background **(N=8)**	**Most** experienced **(N=5)**	**Medium** Experienced **(N=5)**	**Least** experienced **(N=13)**
Acquire rules of grammar subconsciously through just hearing input						
No they can't	74%	86%	50%	80%	80%	69%
Yes they can	22%	7%	50%	20%	20%	23%
It depends	4%	7%	0%	0%	0%	8%

The Table shows differences in Education background. Teacher 11 [least experienced and with Education background] for example explained:

> No, we need to explain it to them. Listening alone is not enough.

Those with no Education background were not consistent. As an example, Teacher 13 [least experienced and with no Education background] reported:

> Yes, they can. With lots of repetition they know that this sentence is said this way.

One teacher (T16), [least experienced and with Education background], said:

> Not all pupils can get it through repetition. We need to draw their attention in grade 4 to the tenses of course but in general they can through repetition. It depends on pupils' level if a pupil is clever or average s/he can acquire and use the tense through listening only.

When asked another question in this category, namely "is it possible to teach grammar through communicative activities without explanation or drilling?" teachers' answers were nearly uniform as shown in the following table.

Table 6.17 Teachers' responses to the topic of instruction

Categories	Total number of teachers (**N=23**)	Teachers **with** education background **(N=15)**	Teachers with **no** education background **(N=8)**	**Most** experienced **(N=5)**	**Medium** Experienced **(N=5)**	**Least** experienced **(N=13)**
Teaching grammar communicatively without drilling						
No it isn't possible	91%	87%	100%	100%	80%	92%
Possible with some structures	9%	13%	0%	0%	20%	8%

Most teachers (91%) said that it is not possible. Teacher 13 [least experienced with no Education background] said:

> No, this is what they ask us to do. I do not think pupils learn this way because sometimes you have to explain the rule in Arabic to help them understand like 'adverbs' you need to explain it in Arabic. Even in grade 2, I explain the rule- why we put 'ed' with 'play' because we have 'yesterday'.

Two teachers with an Education background, one with medium experience and one with least experience, said it is possible to do so but only with simple structures like the present tense. Teacher 6 [with an Education background and medium experience] explained:

> Yes, it is possible to teach grammar communicatively but there are structures that require us to teach them using the traditional way of teaching like reported speech and the passive. Not all structures can be taught communicatively i.e. by speaking only.

This question reflects teachers' belief that grammar explanation is necessary and is consistent with a previous question when they said pupils can't acquire rules of grammar through listening alone, so they believe that grammar can't be taught communicatively. The suggestion is that teachers believe that grammar can't be taught implicitly, which is what they have been told to do by the English Inspectorate. Teacher 3 [most experienced and with Education background] further says:

> No, how can a pupil answer exam questions if we did not explain the rules. At the beginning through listening using pictures and role play then I need to teach it so when she communicates she does not make errors. 'I goes to school' she needs to know that 'I' doesn't take 's'. We need explanation and we need drilling.

When teachers were asked "what kind of activities do you think can be used to teach grammar communicatively?", they listed a number of activities, and usually mentioned more than one. The result is that answers overlap, so we will look at teachers' answers and count the frequency of those activities to find out which activities are mentioned the most in their answers. These include, grammar exercises, mentioned by nine teachers; the PPP technique (Present, Practice and Produce), mentioned by six teachers; role play, mentioned by seven teachers; TPR (Total Physical Response), mentioned by six teachers; using pictures, mentioned by six teachers; and finally repetition, mentioned by two teachers. Teacher 16 [with Education background and least experienced] explained:

> I write an example on the board. Then pupils repeat it many times, and then they give me similar sentences. Then I ask 'what are you doing now?' they give me a similar sentence then we drill it then they

> produce it. It is PPP. Present the sentence on the board, practice through repetition, produce when I ask them a question and they give me a similar sentence.

Teachers who mentioned grammar exercises mentioned the kind of questions they are told to use by the English Inspectorate (see Chapter Three, Table 3.6). Teacher 4 [with Education background and most experienced] said:

> We are told to use specific exercises like underline the correct word, match the word with a picture and fill in the spaces with the right word. If I had the freedom, I would draw a picture of two girls in a restaurant and ask two pupils to talk about it.

Teachers who mentioned other activities such as using pictures, said, for example (Teacher 17):

> I can use pictures of someone eating and I ask the pupil 'what is he doing?' 'he is eating' a pupil may say 'he eating' I repeat 'he is eating' then I ask another pupil to say it and the whole class practices it.

So, teachers mentioned different activities, including using the PPP technique. This reflects their in-service training and the Longman sessions, as well as their *Teacher's Guide*, where teachers were shown how to teach the different activities using PPP. PPP is a technique usually used with weak CLT, where the last P is free production, where pupils use the forms they learned in meaning-focused communicative activities. However, what teachers mentioned above are form-focused controlled exercises and, as teachers said, are used at the production stage of PPP.

When teachers were asked "do you think using language for a real communicative purpose will result in fluency and accuracy?" teachers' answers varied. Table 6.18 shows the results.

Table 6.18 Teachers' responses to the topic of instruction

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
Using language communicatively						
Will result in fluency only	44%	47%	38%	40%	40%	46%
Both fluency and accuracy	35%	26%	49%	60%	40%	23%
Neither fluency nor accuracy	17%	20%	13%	0%	20%	23%
Will result in accuracy only	4%	7%	0%	0%	0%	8%

Differences are seen with regard to Education background. Teacher 10 [medium experienced and with Education background] explained:

> Yes. Fluency for sure, but accuracy needs time and lots of repetition as accuracy needs practice and with time s/he will be accurate.

Almost half of those with no Education background said it will result in both accuracy and fluency. The same with experience, as Teacher 3 [with Education background and most experienced) explained:

> Yes it is possible if the child is taught well from the beginning she will be accurate. S/he will learn to be accurate and fluent.

Others believed that it depends on other factors such as the teacher being a non-native speaker. Teacher 11 [with Education background and least experienced] commented:

> It won't be a perfect accuracy and fluency. Accuracy depends on the teacher and we are non-native speakers. Also the teacher will not always speak English.

One teacher (T12), with an Education background and least experience, said it will result in accuracy because pupils do not practice the language at home, and it depends on the teacher as the only provider of TL input.

Teachers' answers that using language communicatively will result in fluency, match with their previous answers that it is not possible to teach grammar communicatively. This is in contrast with the aim of using weak CLT, which is to achieve fluency and accuracy as stated in the *Teacher's Guide* and the Longman training course. However, those who said it will result in both accuracy and fluency contradict what they said about it not being possible to teach grammar communicatively.

Teachers were further asked "how do you use English for a real purpose in the classroom?" This question aims to find out whether teachers use English communicatively. In CLT language is always used for a purpose (Savignon, 1997). Teachers' gave different answers as shown in Table 6.19 below.

Table 6.19 Teachers' responses to the topic of instruction

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
Using English for a real purpose						
Said for management and routines	57%	53%	62%	40%	60%	62%
Said to ask pupils about their daily life	22%	13%	38%	20%	0%	30%
Said in classroom situations	17%	27%	0%	20%	40%	8%
Said through using pictures	4%	7%	0%	20%	0%	0%

Teacher 7 [medium experienced with no Education background] said:

> I use it off task 'Please, have a seat, tidy your classroom, clean your desks.' Also miming and gestures help a lot and with time and practice they learn.

A few teachers said they use English when they ask pupils to bring them things from their office or ask them about their daily life, e.g. what did you eat for lunch? Still a few teachers said they use English in classroom situations, e.g. when the teacher needs a pen and asks the pupils for one. One teacher said she uses English through pictures and asks pupils to talk about them.

According to teachers' responses, more than half the teachers said they use English in classroom management and routines. This is expected, as this is the most common way that English would be used for a real purpose, as it takes place daily and naturally in the classroom. Teachers need to make use of it to help children pick up the language quickly and easily, as language is meaningful and contextualized. Still, assessment, discussed in Chapter Three, does not incorporate communicative activities where language is used for a real purpose, asking pupils about their daily life, testing pupils in new situations, or asking them to talk about pictures.

The next question under this topic was "do you explain grammar rules or do you teach them implicitly through pattern drilling?" Table 6.20 below shows the results.

Table 6.20 Teachers' responses to the topic of instruction

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
Explain grammar or drill it implicitly						
Said they explain and drill	78%	73%	87%	60%	80%	85%
Said they only drill	22%	27%	13%	40%	20%	15%

Teacher 1 [most experienced with Education background] explained:

> We were told to present structures through the activities that we give pupils without explaining the rule but sometimes we are forced to explain like for example explaining the use of 's' third person singular with she, he , it. Sometimes they do not understand why we put 's' so we need to explain it to them.

Teachers' response to this question matches up with what they said about it not being possible to teach grammar communicatively, and that using language communicatively will result in fluency but not accuracy. So their belief is that CLT is not enough to teach accuracy. A few of the twenty three teachers said they use only drilling and repetition to teach grammar, four teachers with Education background (T5, T6, T11, and T18) and one (T2) without. Teacher 6 [medium experienced with Education background] explained:

> Grammar is taught through repetition/drilling and an exercise and most important is repetition. First we start with repetition 'she is writing', 'she is reading' once and twice then I give them an exercise 'choose the correct word'. We do not explain grammar and through repetition they get it.

Teachers with an Education background were introduced, during their pre-service training, to CLT during their course in 'Applied Linguistics' and were taught how to plan lessons and prepare language activities during the module 'Seminar=Teaching English to Young Learners'. Those with and without an Education background were also introduced to a CLT-based learner-centred method and to the PPP technique through their in-service training with Longman training course. Still, teachers believe that explanation is necessary to help pupils understand, and observation supported this. Although the *Teacher's Guide* (2005) asks teachers to only drill:

> Repeat any new structure in a sentence several times. Pupils can then use the new structure in groups then they can work in pairs. This way

they get the maximum practice in communicating using the new language (2005: xiv).

The *Teacher's Guide* (2005: xiv) further explains:

> There are two main ways of integrating accuracy and fluency work. One involves 'PPP' (present, practice, produce). This is basically a structural approach that incorporates a final 'free production' stage where learners have the chance to use the structures they have been practicing in a communicative activity, where they are primarily focused on meaning.

When teachers were asked "Do you think the teacher in the foreign language classroom is to provide target language input?" Many teachers said 'yes'. The table below shows the percentages.

Table 6.21 Teachers' responses to the topic of instruction

Categories	Total number of teachers **(N=23)**	Teachers **with** education background **(N=15)**	Teachers with **no** education background **(N=8)**	**Most** experienced **(N=5)**	**Medium** Experienced **(N=5)**	**Least** experienced **(N=13)**
Teacher to provide TL input?						
Yes	65%	60%	75%	40%	60%	77%
No	13%	20%	0	20%	20%	8%
Not the only source	22%	20%	25%	40%	20%	15%

Overall, teachers see that the role of the teacher is to provide target language input.

Teacher 4 [most experienced with an Education background] commented:

> Yes, because children acquire a lot of the language like daily routines (can I go to the bathroom?) (I want to drink water). A child learns a lot from daily routines when s/he listens to the teacher.

Still, Teacher 2 [most experienced with no Education background] said:

> Not all the time. A teacher needs to guide pupils and let them find the information by themselves. I bring her a story and she reads it by herself.

While three teachers said 'No'. Teacher 6 [with an Education background and medium experienced] commented:

> I do not think so. A pupil learns English more if she starts to listen to things from outside like tape recorded stories in English or CDs. The more she reads from outside the classroom, the more and better she acquires the language.

Teachers' answers to this question does not match up with their response to another question when they said that it was not possible to speak English all the time with children, and that they do not use English all the time in their classrooms. Although this question may seem easy to answer, it aimed to find out whether teachers are aware of other sources of English language input and whether there are constraints on their use.

When teachers were further asked "how practical is it for a teacher to become a guide and for children to work with less direction?", a large percentage of teachers (61%) said that it is not practical for a teacher to be a guide. Table 6.22 below shows the results.

Table 6.22 Teachers' responses to the topic of instruction

Categories	Total number of teachers **(N=23)**	Teachers **with** education background **(N=15)**	Teachers with **no** education background **(N=8)**	**Most** experienced **(N=5)**	**Medium** Experienced **(N=5)**	**Least** experienced **(N=13)**
Practicality of a teacher as a guide						
Not practical	61%	67%	50%	80%	80%	46%
Practical	30%	33%	25%	0%	20%	46%
Only with clever pupils	9%	0%	25%	20%	0%	8%

Teacher 22 [least experienced with no Education background]explains:

> This is difficult. It may suit university students but children can not depend on themselves. They depend on the teacher as the source of information and on their book. Unless you work very hard with them, they will not learn.

A large number of those with an Education background think the same, as well as the most and medium experienced. However, some teachers think that it is possible for young learners to work with less direction. Teacher 11 [least experienced with Education background] reported:

> Yes, it is possible. If the child gets used to it she can do it. But only with old information as the teacher must explain new things.

Two teachers said that it only works with clever pupils. Teacher 23 [with no Education background and least experienced] reported:

> It works with clever pupils only. It is not practical as it won't work with all kinds of pupils, weak and average pupils need more than

> guidance. They need the teacher teaching and explaining a lot to understand.

As seen above, differences were found between those with and without an Education background. For those with an Education background, this echoes their Education where they were taught in their module 'Seminar=Teaching English to Young Learners' how to manage their classroom. They also learned about young learners' characteristics and problems associated with teaching English to young learners. So, a teacher can not be just a guide, she needs to guide and provide, which is discussed below.

The last question under this topic/theme is "what role do you assume in your classroom, a provider of knowledge or a guide of pupils' activities?" Teachers' answers were nearly uniform. Table 6.23 shows teachers' responses.

Table 6.23 Teachers' responses to the topic of instruction

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
A guide or a provider of Knowledge						
Said they guide and provide knowledge	91%	87%	100%	100%	100%	85%
Said they only provide knowledge	9%	13%	0%	0%	0%	15%

Overall teachers said they guide and provide knowledge. Teacher 6 [medium experienced with Education background] explained:

> I think both, I give them the information and when they want to use it I become a guide guiding them on how to use it and I correct them.

Teachers' answers are consistent so far as they can not be just a guide and they need to both guide and provide. Teachers' answers suggest that being a guide would not be suitable to their children who are learning English as a subject and as a foreign language in a context where they hardly use it outside the classroom. Also in a culture where the teacher is always seen as a provider of knowledge and pupils depend on the teacher to give them everything they need. Also, the *Teacher's Guide* (2005: xiv) tells teachers to present and practice all structures "there are two main ways of integrating accuracy and fluency work. One involves 'PPP' (present, practice, produce)" but at the

same time to make their teaching learner-centred and give pupils some responsibility over their learning "encourage pupils to ask you or their partners questions about listening texts. As much as possible let the lesson become pupil-centred" (2005: vii).

Two teachers said that they were a provider of knowledge, for example Teacher 17 [least experienced with Education background] said:

> According to the new Curriculum we provide knowledge more than guide. There are different tasks and we need to explain every task, so we can not guide as activities are not similar were mere guidance is enough. We provide knowledge all the year.

Teacher 18 [least experienced with Education background] said the same:

> My role is a provider of knowledge as we did not reach the stage of guidance.

Although the *Teacher's Guide* asks teachers to let pupils do things themselves:

> Get them to work out the meaning of a new word themselves. This will encourage dependent thinking, promote discussion and result in the word being remembered more effectively (xiii).

To summarize, teachers believe that learners can't acquire rules accurately from just listening, and using language communicatively will result in fluency but not accuracy, and it is not possible to teach grammar communicatively, therefore they see the need to explain and drill and provide knowledge, as well as guide. Although they believe in the role of input and that pupils should be pushed to communicate.

6.4 Fluency and accuracy

This topic/theme contains four questions. The first question teachers were asked was "Can young learners exposed just to primary linguistic data (PLD) eventually acquire the target language (TL) accurately?" Teachers' answers were not uniform, as shown below.

Table 6.24 Teachers' responses to the topic of fluency and accuracy

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
Acquire lang. accurately from PLD						
No	56%	67%	38%	60%	80%	46%
Yes	35%	20%	62%	20%	20%	46%
It depends	9%	13%	0%	20%	0%	8%

As shown, teachers' responses were not uniform. More than half of those with an Education background said it is not possible to acquire language accurately from PLD only. Teacher 9 [medium experienced and with Education background] explained:

> I think maybe they can make good sentences but not 100% accurate. They will still make errors; they won't be accurate.

This matches their answer to a previous question, when they said that learners can't acquire rules through just hearing input. It suggests teachers do not believe in the role of input in language learning as there is always a need to explain grammar. More than half of those with no Education background said it is possible. Teacher 7 [medium experienced and with no Education background] commented:

> It is possible because they learned it young which makes it easier for them also there is repetition as it is necessary for learning.

Still, two teachers said it depends on various factors. Teacher 5 [most experienced with Education background] explained:

> It depends on the child and his/her abilities because there are individual differences. There are children who can acquire it quickly while others can't.

Overall, teachers differ according to their Education background as those with an Education background were introduced to the principles of language learning and teaching in their course 'Applied Linguistics'. At the same time differences were seen in experience background (see Chapter Seven).

When teachers were asked "if you aim for communicative competence, how would you focus on accuracy?", some said they would correct after an activity as the following table shows.

Table 6.25 Teachers' responses to the topic of fluency and accuracy

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
Focusing on accuracy in CLT						
Correct immediately	61%	47%	87%	40%	80%	62%
Correct after activity	39%	53%	13%	60%	20%	38%

Teacher 1 [with Education background and most experienced] commented:

> We let the pupil speak and when she finishes we make her correct the errors. So, if she makes a serious error, I write it on the board and ask her to correct it or for other pupils to help her. I wait and do not interrupt as I will interrupt her line of thinking.

However, many of the 23 teachers said they would correct immediately. Teacher 13 [least experienced with no Education background] reports:

> I ask every pupil a question and I correct her immediately. I say the correct sentence and ask the pupil and the whole class to repeat after me.

As seen above, teachers' answers match up with their answer to other questions when they said that using language communicatively would result in fluency and when they said that it is not possible to teach grammar communicatively. Those with an Education background said they would correct after the activity. This echoes their Education where they learned about the role of motivation in language learning in their module on 'Principles of Educational Psychology'. They also learned about providing feedback in 'Seminar=Teaching English to Young Learners' as well as the Longman training course for all teachers. Also the *Teacher's Guide* asks teachers to tolerate errors and not to overcorrect.

When teachers were further asked "is it possible to teach fluency before accuracy or accuracy before fluency or both at the same time? Which is more difficult to do and why?" Teachers were not uniform in their answers. Table 6.26 gives teachers' responses.

Table 6.26 Teachers' responses to the topic of fluency and accuracy

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
Teaching fluency before accuracy						
Fluency before accuracy	48%	53%	37%	60%	80%	31%
Both accuracy and fluency	43%	40%	50%	40%	20%	54%
Accuracy before fluency	9%	7%	13%	0%	0%	15%

Nearly half of the teachers said fluency should come before accuracy. Teachers said that they find it hard to teach accuracy before fluency as Teacher 7 [medium experienced with no Education background] reported:

> Fluency before accuracy because too much correction will kill the pupil's fluency.

Less than half the teachers said it is possible to teach both fluency and accuracy. Teacher 22 [least experienced with no Education background] said:

> Both together, what is the use of fluency without accuracy; she can not send her meaning clearly to others.

Only two teachers said it is possible to teach accuracy before fluency. Teacher 12 [least experienced with Education background] explained:

> Accuracy first with structures then fluency later because if fluent but not accurate she will make errors and embarrass herself. We can't teach them together we go step by step.

As can be seen, there are differences in Education where those with an Education background (53%) and the most experienced said it is possible to teach fluency before accuracy. This is consistent with their previous answer, when they said they correct after an activity. This echoes their pre-service Education where they were introduced to different methods and approaches including the Communicative Approach (strong CLT) during their module 'Methods of Teaching English to Young Learners'(1) and reading of Richards and Rodgers (1986) *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching.* Those with no Education background (50%) and the least experienced, think, however, that it is possible to teach both at the same time, which points to a weak CLT method. According to PPP, discussed above, the presentation and practice phases focus on accuracy, later on pupils are provided with meaning-focused activities to produce those structures where the focus is supposed to be on fluency. The *Teacher's Guide* (2005: xiv) further states that "there are two main ways of

integrating accuracy with fluency work. One involves 'PPP' (present, practice, produce)". This also echoes the workbook as, although it provides many exercises and activities to present and practice accuracy (see Table 3.3), it also provides some activities where pupils develop fluency, e.g. when students ask each other questions to fill in a survey to practice a specific form or function.

When teachers were asked the sub-question "which is more difficult to do accuracy or fluency? And why?" A large number (61%) of teachers said accuracy was more difficult, as shown in Table 6.27 below.

Table 6.27 Teachers' responses to the topic of fluency and accuracy

Categories	Total number of teachers **(N=23)**	Teachers **with** education background **(N=15)**	Teachers with **no** education background **(N=8)**	**Most** experienced **(N=5)**	**Medium** Experienced **(N=5)**	**Least** experienced **(N=13)**
More difficult to do						
Accuracy	61%	60%	63%	80%	60%	54%
Fluency	35%	40%	24%	20%	40%	38%
Both	4%	0%	13%	0%	0%	8%

For example, teacher 8 [medium experience with no Education background] said:

> Accuracy is more difficult because you need to know all the rules of the language. Accuracy needs practice and knowledge of the rules of the language.

Other reasons they gave for accuracy being difficult included: children forget a lot; they are forced to learn the rules; they need knowledge of the rules; some rules are hard to explain; and they need good models to follow. Twelve teachers said this is because accuracy takes time and pupils do not practice the language enough. For all those reasons, teachers (53%) said they teach both fluency and accuracy, and the *Teacher's Guide* asks teachers to do both using PPP. For those with an Education background, it echoes their pre-service training where they learned about how children learn a FL, their characteristics, memory limitation and speech production and comprehension, role of motivation in language learning, acquisition vs. learning, and EFL vs. ESL in courses, i.e. Psycholinguistics, Principles of Educational Psychology, and Methods of Teaching English to Young learners. Nonetheless, for all teachers it shows their awareness of the constraints put on learning a foreign language with children in EFL countries.

However, some teachers said that fluency is more difficult. Teacher 18 [least experienced with Education background] explained:

> Fluency is more difficult because it needs lots of vocabulary and it depends on the pupil. I can guarantee accuracy (grammar and sentence construction) as I can teach it to her but not fluency as she should depend on herself. Primary pupils are not usually fluent because they do not have enough vocabulary. She can give you a correct sentence but stops at a word she doesn't know.

Additional reasons for fluency being difficult that were listed were: pupils being shy; teachers not being fluent; the need to practice the language with native speakers; pupils needing to have self confidence to speak in front of an audience (mentioned by four teachers); and pupils being beginners and not having a linguistic background (mentioned by three teachers). One teacher (T22) [least experienced with no Education background] said both are difficult because pupils do not have enough practice.

And when teachers were asked "do you teach fluency before accuracy or both at the same time?" Teachers' answers were not uniform as shown in Table 6.28 below.

Table 6.28 Teachers' responses to the topic of fluency and accuracy

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
Teaching fluency and accuracy						
Said they teach both at the same time	53%	47%	63%	20%	60%	62%
Said they teach fluency before accuracy	30%	33%	24%	60%	40%	15%
Said they teach accuracy before fluency	13%	20%	0%	20%	0%	15%
Said it depends on pupils' level	4%	0%	13%	0%	0%	8%

For example, teacher 11 [least experienced with an Education background] said:

> Both at the same time. I can't let the pupil speak while she makes errors. I always correct errors no matter what the situation is.

Only one teacher (Teacher 13) [least experienced with no Education background] said it depends:

> It depends on the pupils. One of my classes needs fluency more, another class needs accuracy more. So, in one class I focus on accuracy and in the other I focus on fluency.

When teachers were asked above if it is possible to teach fluency before accuracy or both at the same time, those with an Education background (53%) and the medium experienced group said it is possible to teach fluency before accuracy, but in actual practice they said they teach both at the same time. Is it the situation that in theory it is possible to teach fluency before accuracy, but in actual practice they teach both (weak CLT) because there are constraints as discussed above? Nonetheless, teachers' answers regarding teaching both fluency and accuracy are consistent with a learner-centred method where PPP is used, as discussed above, and according to the *Teachers' Guide* (2005):

> There are two main ways of integrating accuracy and fluency work. One involves 'PPP' (present, practice, produce) (2005: xiv).

In summary, teachers believe accuracy is more difficult than fluency and they say it is possible to teach fluency before accuracy, yet they teach both fluency and accuracy. They also said that with CLT they correct immediately. So, teachers see accuracy as more important since it is more difficult and it needs more time and practice, while fluency does not.

6.5 Error correction

There are four questions under this topic/theme. When teachers were asked "what do errors represent?" teachers gave different answers that would explain why learners make errors as shown in Table 6.29 below.

Table 6.29 Teachers' responses to the topic of error correction

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
What do errors represent?						
Bad models	31%	40%	13%	40%	0	38%
Not using the language	17%	20%	13%	0	40%	15%
Not acquiring the rule	10%	13%	0	20%	0	8%
Misunderstanding the rule	17%	7%	37%	20%	0	23%
Needs time & practice	17%	13%	24%	20%	60%	0
L1 interference	4%	7%	0	0	0	8%
Overgeneralization	4%	0	13%	0	0	8%

Teacher 3 [with an Education background and most experienced] said:

> Her teacher was not experienced or native or speaks with an accent so errors are the result of her first contact with the language and will stay with her.

Teacher 8 [with no Education background and with medium experience] said:

> Because she is young and just learning the language and needs time and practice to learn it well.

Teacher 23 [with no Education background and least experienced] said:

> Maybe it is overgeneralization like 'goed'.

In brief, teachers gave different reasons that all give explanation as to why errors occur more in speech compared to writing. Teachers with an Education background said it was the result of bad modelling which reflects the effect of the quality of input on second language acquisition. And when they said it is the result of not using the language shows a constraint on using a communicative approach in an EFL context.

When teachers were asked "which errors do you think you need to correct, those affecting meaning or those affecting language?", teachers' responses were not uniform. Table 6.30 shows teachers' responses.

Table 6.30 Teachers' responses to the topic of error correction

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
Errors to correct with CLT						
Both meaning and language	39%	47%	24%	40%	20%	46%
Meaning	39%	40%	38%	40%	60%	31%
Language	22%	13%	38%	20%	20%	23%

Almost half of those with an Education background said they would correct both language and meaning. Teacher 17 [with an Education background and least experienced]said:

> Both. She needs to know the meaning and how to make a correct sentence.

While Teacher 13 [with no Education background and least experienced] said:

> Meaning [should be corrected] because if she can send her message through to me even with errors I know she understood. Language errors like grammar can be fixed with time.

Five teachers of the total number of teachers said they would correct only language errors. One of these five, Teacher 21 [least experienced with an Education background] reported:

> Most important is language. Meaning can be fixed but language is hard to. If incorrectly learned, it will stick in their minds and it will be difficult to change with time like pronunciation errors.

To sum up, teachers with an Education background said they would correct both meaning and language, which echoes their Education as to a learner-centred method where there is a need to focus on accuracy and fluency. They were introduced to CLT in their Applied Linguistic module as well as their module on Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Young learners (1). However, most of the textbook exercises (see Chapter Three Table 3.3) and assessment (Chapter Three Tables 3.5/3.6) encourage a focus on form as well as the methods (ALM ,TPR) and technique (PPP) used.

When further asked "is it possible to ignore pupils' errors during a communicative activity? And which errors would you ignore?" Teachers' answers were relatively uniform as shown in Table 6.31

Table 6.31 Teachers' responses to the topic of error correction

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
Possibility of ignoring errors						
Yes it is possible	78%	93%	50%	100%	80%	69%
No it is not possible	22%	7%	50%	0%	20%	31%

One of those teachers (T13), [least experienced with no Education background], commented:

> Yes. I can ignore grammatical errors or errors of language as they will not affect communication.

Only five of the twenty three teachers said that it is not possible to ignore errors.

Teacher 8 [medium experienced with no Education background] said:

> No I can't. This is accuracy, you need to direct pupils to their errors and we keep repeating the correct answer till they get it. We must because this is the role of the teacher.

As seen above, those with an Education background said it was possible to ignore errors. This echoes, as said above, their training where they learned about the Communicative Approach and CLT, where errors are tolerated. They learned about contrastive and error analysis, over-generalization and interlanguage, as well as significance of learners' errors in 'Applied Linguistics' and 'Language Acquisition'. Only half of those without Education said it was possible, although both groups had the Longman training course and both were asked by the *Teacher's Guide* to tolerate learners' errors.

> The reason is not to focus on one pupil's errors which may affect her/his confidence in speaking again "the best way to correct errors in the long run is through constant practice" (*Teacher's Guide*, 2005: xvii).

When teachers were further asked "which errors would you ignore during a communicative activity?" their answers were not uniform, as shown in the table below.

Table 6.32 Teachers' responses to the topic of error correction

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
Which errors to ignore?						
Grammatical errors	48%	60%	25%	80%	40%	38%
Simple errors	22%	20%	25%	20%	20%	23%
All errors	4%	6%	0	0	20%	0
Depends on the aim of the lesson	4%	7%	0	0	0	8%
Would not ignore errors	22%	7%	50%	0	20	31

Less than half of the teachers said they would ignore grammatical errors. Teacher 14 [least experienced with no Education background] reported:

> I do not ignore errors that affect meaning but grammatical errors like plural 's' or 'ing' can be corrected later.

A few teachers said they would ignore simple errors. Teacher 2 [most experienced with no Education background] said:

> I only ignore simple errors like third person singular 's' but I correct serious errors immediately as well as pronunciation.

So, a large number of teachers (78%) said it is possible to ignore errors and specifically grammatical errors.

When asked "how often do you correct your pupils' errors? Teachers' said they always correct as shown by Table 6.33 below.

Table 6.33 Teachers' responses to the topic of error correction

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
How often to correct errors						
Said they always correct	65%	60%	75%	40%	60%	77%
Said they usually correct	26%	27%	25%	40%	40%	15%
Said they sometimes correct	9%	13%	0%	20%	0%	8%

More than half the total number of teachers said that they always correct. Teacher 12 [least experienced with an Education background] reported:

> I always correct pupils' errors.

When further asked "do you immediately correct them or do you leave them after the activity is finished?" A large number of teachers (78%) said they immediately correct. Table 6.34 presents teachers' answers.

Table 6.34 Teachers' responses to the topic of error correction

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
When to correct errors						
Said they correct immediately	78%	80%	75%	100%	80%	69%
Said they correct after activity	22%	20%	25%	0%	20%	31%

Teacher 12 above said:

> I correct it immediately as soon as I hear the error to stick in their minds.

Teacher 9 [medium experienced with an Education background] further said:

> I always correct errors and immediately although I'm supposed to wait but I can't. I correct by repetition of good models. I say the sentence with the correction and the pupil repeats after me.

Only five teachers said they correct later. Teacher 20 [least experienced with an Education background] said:

> I usually correct but not immediately. I wait until after the activity as immediate correction inhibits pupils from speaking as of fear of making errors.

In brief, when teachers were asked if it is possible to ignore pupils' errors, teachers said it is possible to do so. But when asked about their actual practice above, they said they always correct and immediately. This means it is possible in theory but not in actual practice as there are constraints, e.g. exams that focus on accuracy. This will be further discussed below. Some teachers' (T12, T8, T17, T19) (most are with an Education background) justification for immediate correction is that if they did not correct immediately, the error would stick in the pupil's mind for ever and would be hard to change. Although, as teacher 5 [most experienced with an Education background] said:

> We are supposed to ignore errors and do not stop pupils to correct them.

So, they know they should ignore errors during a communicative activity but find it hard to do so. Teacher 5 is referring to the English Inspectorate and to the *Teachers' Guide* which ask teachers not to overcorrect pupils' errors. A learner-centred method would encourage pupils to speak and ask teachers to tolerate pupils' errors so as not to discourage them from speaking, as stated by the *Teacher's Guide* (2005):

> Do not over-criticize or over-correct their pronunciation or grammar. If you correct them too much, you may undermine their confidence (2005: xiii)

Teachers' urge for correction is justified. First, assessment, as discussed in Chapter Three, is form-focused and controlled, asking pupils to choose the correct verb, fill in with a word, spell words correctly and to know how to punctuate, e.g. fill in the blanks with words from a list: 'Football is my favourite…..' and pupils are provided with a list of words. Textbook exercises are controlled and most of them focus on accuracy, e.g. Pupils listen to words then put them in groups according to their endings['s' 'z' or 'iz']. This is confirmed by the *Teacher's Guide* (2005):

> The pupils are presented with a variety of controlled activities to produce words and simple sentences. Because the activities are controlled, teachers can check that the pupils are writing specific words correctly and therefore check the pupils' accuracy. (2005: x)

In summary, teachers correct all the time and immediately. Although they say it is possible to ignore grammatical errors, in practice they do not ignore any because of

constraints such as form-focused exams. Teachers also see language as more important and they see the need to correct it, although they are told not to.

6.6 Testing

There are four questions under this topic/theme. First, teachers were asked "how can one measure the development of linguistic competence?" Teachers were relatively uniform in their answers. Table 6.35 shows teachers' responses.

Table 6.35 Teachers' responses to the topic of testing

Categories	Total number of teachers **(N=23)**	Teachers **with** education background **(N=15)**	Teachers with **no** education background **(N=8)**	**Most** experienced **(N=5)**	**Medium** Experienced **(N=5)**	**Least** experienced **(N=13)**
Measuring linguistic competence						
Orally and in writing	70%	74%	62%	60%	80%	70%
Orally	17%	13%	25%	20%	20%	15%
In writing	13%	13%	13%	20%	0%	15%

Many of the twenty three teachers said one can do so orally and in writing, Teacher 15 [with no Education background and least experienced] reported:

> We can do it orally by asking general questions. In writing by spelling words on the blackboard, by filling in missing letters in a word, by matching pictures with words and by correcting the verb in brackets.

Only four teachers said linguistic competence was measured orally. Teacher 7 [with no Education background and medium experienced] said:

> We measure it orally through the oral fluency activity. The pupil makes her own topic and talks about it without interference from me and I look at her pronunciation and grammar.

Three teachers said one can measure linguistic competence in writing. Teacher 22 [least experienced with no Education background] explained:

> Through written tests from simple tests to more difficult ones to see how her linguistic competence is developing.

Although teachers were told by the English Inspectorate to use the oral fluency activity in Table 3.5 in Chapter Three to evaluate pupils' oral skills, Teacher 22 said that the oral fluency activity does not really show pupils' linguistic competence. She said that most pupils let their parents do it for them and they read it in class:

> Oral fluency is discourse competence but it is not competence as their parents do it for them and they memorize it.

When teachers were further asked "is it possible to test pupils' communicative competence?" Teachers' answers were nearly uniform, as Table 6.36 shows.

Table 6.36 Teachers' responses to the topic of testing

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
Testing communicative competence						
Yes it is possible	91%	87%	100%	80%	100%	92%
No it is not possible	9%	13%	0%	20%	0%	8%

Most teachers said it was possible to test. Teacher 6 [medium experienced with an Education background] commented:

> Yes, it is possible by written tests and by oral fluency, which is an activity given at the end of every unit to help pupils become more fluent in the language and pupils are evaluated on it.

However, two teachers, T1 [most experienced with an Education background] and T17 [least experienced with an Education background] said it was not possible. Teacher 1 said:

> It is difficult and we can not test everything. There are things we can test and others we can't through written exams and daily conversation. Current tests, test grammar and language functions.

When teachers were asked "how do you test communicative competence?", a large number of teachers (70%) said they test it orally. Table 6.37 presents teachers' responses.

Table 6.37 Teachers' responses to the topic of testing

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
esting communicative competence						
aid they test it orally	70%	66%	75%	60%	80%	69%
aid they test it orally & in writing	22%	20%	25%	40%	0%	23%
aid they test it in writing	4%	7%	0%	0%	20%	0%
aid they do not have such a test	4%	7%	0%	0%	0%	8%

No big differences were found between teachers. Teachers said that they test communicative competence orally and not in writing. Teacher 19 [least experienced with an Education background] reported:

> Orally as I ask the pupil to imagine herself in a situation and what she should do. Communication is done only orally through speaking. I ask 'if I want to buy bread where do I go?' they say 'let's go to the bakery' this is communicative competence.

While teacher 21 [with an Education background and least experienced] said:

> We do not have a test for communicative competence in our curriculum. It can not be tested.

Teachers' answers to this question match up with their previous answers when they said that it was possible to test communicative competence. According to oral assessment discussed in Chapter Three Table 3.5, teachers assess the speaking skill through the oral fluency activity, retelling a story, and participating in short dialogues. Teachers' answers suggest that the existing written tests do not test students' communicative competence. It is not seen how they do it in writing, when tests, as discussed above and in Chapter Three, are mainly form-focused and test grammatical competence.

When they were asked "which part of communicative competence do you test, grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic, or strategic?", all teachers (100%) said that they test grammatical competence as shown in the table below.

Table 6.38 Teachers' responses to the topic of testing

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
Which part of it?						
Said they test grammatical competence	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Teacher 11 [least experienced with an Education background] said she tests

> Grammatical and discourse competence orally and in writing but very little function as we do not focus on it.

Teachers unanimously said they test grammatical competence. This, together with their answer on a previous question, when most of them (91%) said that it is possible

to test communicative competence, shows that communicative competence is possible to test in theory. However, in actual practice they do not have such a test because they only test one part of communicative competence, i.e. grammatical competence. There is also the possibility that teachers do not really understand what communicative competence entails, i.e. the four competencies. This is confirmed when they had difficulty understanding the meaning of sociolinguistic, strategic, and discourse competence, where I had to explain their meanings to them before they answered the question. This is in spite of the fact that teachers, as discussed in Chapter Three, have been introduced to CLT and to the issue of communicative competence during their pre-service training and the in-service training (Longman training course). For those with Education background, this is stated in their training booklet, Al-Mutawa (1995) and in their courses 'Applied Linguistics' and 'Methods of Teaching English to Young Learners (1). They have also read, as a main text, Richards and Rodgers (1986) *Approaches and Methods in Language teaching* where they have been introduced to CLT. There is a possibility that teachers did not retain their training.

In summary, teachers said linguistic competence can be tested orally and in writing. They believe it is possible to test communicative competence and said that they test it orally, but when asked which part of communicative competence they test, they unanimously said grammatical competence.

6.7 National curriculum assumptions

Four questions go under this topic/theme. When teachers were asked "Why do learners make more errors in spontaneous speech than they do on written exams?" teachers gave different reasons that would explain why errors are made more in speech than in writing, as shown in the table below.

Table 6.39 Teachers' responses to the topic of National Curriculum assumptions

Categories	Total number of teachers **(N=23)**	Teachers **with** education background **(N=15)**	Teachers with **no** education background **(N=8)**	**Most** experienced **(N=5)**	**Medium** Experienced **(N=5)**	**Least** experienced **(N=13)**
lore errors in spontaneous speech						
peech spontaneous writing takes time	52%	53%	50%	80%	60%	39%
lo practice	30%	33%	24%	20%	20%	38%
lore written than oral exams	9%	7%	13%	0	20%	8%
upils shy	9%	7%	13%	0	0	15%

Many teachers said because speech is spontaneous while writing takes time. Teacher 1[most experienced and with an Education background] explained:

> Because speech is spontaneous and they did not plan for it, so they make errors.

Another reason was given by teacher 7 [medium experienced and with no Education background]:

> Because there is no practice but if we can use it outside class too we can be fluent speakers.

Still, other reasons are reported by teacher 9 [with an Education background and medium experienced]:

> Because exams focus on writing only.

All groups of teachers with and without Education backgrounds, and with medium and least experience, said that one of the reasons for having more errors in speech than in writing is because there are more written than oral exams. As discussed in Chapter Three, if teachers have more written tests than oral tests, then classroom teaching reflects this and pupils can end up doing workbook exercises and worksheets that are form-focused instead of communicating.

When teachers were asked "do you think your pupils after twelve years of learning English as a foreign language will end up being communicatively competent?", teachers' answers were not uniform, as the table below shows.

Table 6.40 Teachers' responses to the topic of National Curriculum assumptions

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
Communicative competence in 12 years						
Some will others won't	48%	40%	62%	60%	80%	31%
No	43%	47%	38%	40%	20%	54%
Yes	9%	13%	0%	0%	0%	15%

Almost half of the total number of teachers said there is variation. One of the teachers (T6) [medium experienced and with an Education background] reported:

> Yes, but I do not think they will all do because there are individual differences between pupils. Some pupils can be fluent but others can't.

Almost half the teachers with an Education background said that their pupils won't.

Teacher 1 [most experienced with an Education background] gave the reasons:

> because they get one period a day for 40 minutes which is not enough also there is no practice outside the classroom. The objective is to help pupils speak but the quantity of information is too much that teachers worry about finishing the curriculum more than developing fluency.

Overall, the question of communicative competence is revealing as to the constraints put on FL teaching/learning. A large number (47%) of those with an Education background said that learners would not be communicatively competent. This echoes their Education as to the constraints put on learning English as a foreign language in their module 'Methods of Teaching English to Young Learners 1. They also learnt about communicative competence, cognitive variations in language learning, personality factors, sociocultural factors, motivation and its relation to learning, differences between acquisition and learning, and differences between foreign and second language learning, e.g. Principles of Educational Psychology, and Applied Linguistics. If, as teachers say, there are environmental constraints, such as learning English as a subject at school for a few minutes a day, kind of textbooks used, kind of assessment, teachers' level, and students' level, then communicative competence is hard to achieve even after 12 years of studying the language.

Teacher 1 also remarked, in her answer to whether pupils will be communicatively competent in 12 years, that:

> Teachers can not use sources from outside the curriculum like songs and stories so pupils reach secondary school can not speak fluently and do not understand much.

When teachers were further asked "is it possible, given the time you have, to teach listening, speaking, reading, and writing equally well?" A large number of teachers (83%) said that it is not possible, as shown below.

Table 6.41 Teachers' responses to the topic of National Curriculum assumptions

Categories	Total number of teachers (N=23)	Teachers **with** education background (N=15)	Teachers with **no** education background (N=8)	**Most** experienced (N=5)	**Medium** Experienced (N=5)	**Least** experienced (N=13)
Teaching the 4 skills equally well						
No it is not possible	83%	93%	63%	60%	80%	92%
Yes it is possible	13%	7%	24%	20%	20%	8%
It depends on the lesson	4%	0%	13%	20%	0%	0%

Most of those with an Education background, and least experienced, said it is not possible. Teacher 1 [most experienced with an Education background] explained:

> No because the time is not enough as the curriculum is very long. We do not read or write in every lesson.

Teacher 8 [medium experienced with no Education background] further said:

> The inspectorate asks us to but it is hard to do as one skill will override the others. Listening, speaking, and reading are fine but there is no time for writing as pupils are slow and we always leave it at the end and the bell rings.

When teachers were asked "which of the four skills do you think you spend more time on in your classroom and why?", teachers' answers were not uniform and some gave more than one answer therefore answers overlap. Thus, I am going to present the results starting with the skill that a large number of teachers said they spent more time on, and ending with the skill the least number of teachers said they spent time on. The skill mentioned most was reading aloud (by sixteen out of the twenty three teachers), then listening and speaking (by seven teachers for each one) and finally writing (by five teachers).

A large number of the teachers (70%) said they spent more time on reading aloud. Teacher 12 [least experienced with an Education background] commented:

> Reading, because they are bad at reading as they did not practice it in grades one and two and suddenly they have to read longer texts in grade three. We should start earlier to save us time later.

Teachers' responses are in accordance with their responses to the previous question on whether it is possible to teach the four skills equally well, as most (83%) teachers said it is not possible. Three of the twenty three teachers said that they spent four lessons on one reading to allow all pupils (about 30 pupils in one class) to practice reading it

aloud. Only one teacher (Teacher 7) [medium experienced with no Education background] said:

> It depends on the lesson and the *Teacher's Guide*. I can't decide. I follow the lesson plan in the *Teacher's Guide*.

The textbooks, as discussed in Chapter Three, focus on reading and writing, then listening, and finally speaking. Achievement tests in Chapter Three focus on reading and writing and there is no oral/aural component added to them. Listening and speaking are assessed on pupils' overall performance in class around the year.

When teachers were asked "why would you spend time on those skills?", teachers gave additional reasons such as: pupils are bad at it, in the case of reading; that the curriculum focuses on them (reading and writing); that it (speaking) is used to practice the language; that pupils are slow at them (writing and reading); and that they (listening and speaking) are used a lot in the classroom where the teacher asks and pupils answer. For example, teacher 1 [most experienced with an Education background] explained:

> Listening and speaking are used most of the time. We want pupils to communicate and use the language.

Teachers also gave other reasons for spending time on some skills more than others such as reading and speaking being the important skills, and that the curriculum is not balanced with regard to the number of activities for each skill, as reported by teachers themselves. Teacher 13 [least experienced with no Education background] said:

> The *Teacher's Guide* focuses on writing a lot and doing exercises and does not give the chance to practice speaking.

In summary, teachers believe that some of their learners will be communicatively competent in 12 years, although some do not think so as there are constraints on learning English as a foreign language. They also reported that it is not possible to teach the four skills equally well, and the skill that they spend the most time on is reading aloud, because pupils are bad at it.

6.8 Discussion

The aim of this section is to discuss teachers' interview results and specifically to discuss teachers' knowledge, belief and perception of their own practice in light of

what they actually do in Chapter 5 and in light of their training (pre-service and in-service) and textbook/materials discussed in Chapter Three. As we discussed in Chapter Three, a learner-centred approach is stated in the *Teacher's Guide* and is aimed for by the *Curriculum Document* and the textbooks/materials. This is weak CLT, as discussed in Chapter Two, where instruction focuses on teaching linguistic forms and communicative functions through meaning-focused activities to achieve accuracy and fluency (Kumaravadivelu, 2006).

A learner-centred classroom would be more pupil-centred than teacher-centred, where pupils would be interacting together in pairs and groups through games and role plays. Form and function would be presented through communicative activities where focus is primarily on meaning. The teacher, although providing knowledge, would give pupils some control over their learning, and guide them through the activities. Furthermore, all skills would be integrated with more focus on aural/oral skills to develop pupils' oral fluency. The discussion will be carried out in the order of the COLT Observation Scheme subcategories discussed in Chapter Five, and those are, Participant Organization, Content, Content Control, and Student Modality. This will make it easy to check what teachers actually do with what they believe and say they do in their interviews.

When teachers (N=23) were asked if it is possible for pupils to use English once put in pairs/groups, 48% said pupils would only use Arabic, 39% said they would use little English, and 13% said only clever pupils would (see Table 6.22 for the division of Education and experience). When teachers (N=23) were asked in another question if they use pair and group work activities, 66% said they use both pairs and groups, 30% said they use only pairs, and one teacher said she does not use any (see Table 6.23. for the division of Education and experience). Knowing that pupils will only use Arabic or little English, teachers still say they use both pairs and groups. However, the COLT results showed teachers with an Education background spending significantly more time (P-value=.001) on T-S/C (Teacher-Student/Class) compared to the time they spent on S-S/C (Student-Student/Class) which includes pair work but not group work. The same for those with no Education background, as they spent significantly more time (P-value=.012) on Teacher-Student/Class compared with Student-Student/Class and compared to Group. No significant differences were found

between Education and no Education groups according to the Mann-Whitney Test in Teacher-Student/Class (P-value=.497), suggesting that teachers spent similar time on this category. Although teachers have been introduced to the Communicative Approach as well as weak CLT during their in-service training, and, for those with an Education background, in their pre-service training, as well as in the *Teachers' Guide*, there is no contribution from Education to teachers' practices with regard to this category. The same applies to experience, where significantly more time was spent on Teacher-Student/Class compared to Student-Student/Class (P-value=.043/.043/.001) for the most, medium and least experienced groups respectively, and compared to Group work (P-value=.039/.042/.001) for the most, medium and least experienced groups respectively. The Kruskal Wallis Test further compared teachers with different experiences and showed significantly more time (P-value=.037) spent on Teacher-Student/Class for those with most experience.

Another situation where teaching is described as teacher-centred is when teachers (N=23) were asked if it is practical for a teacher to be a guide with young learners. 61% said it is not practical, while 30% said it is, and 9% said only with clever pupils (see Table 6.36 for the division of Education and Experience). When teachers (N=23) were asked in another question what role they assume in their classroom, a provider of knowledge or a guide, 91% said they guide and provide knowledge, and 9% said they only provide knowledge (see Table 6.37 for the division of Education and experience). However, the COLT results discussed above showed teachers with and without an Education background spending significantly more time on Teacher-Student/Class, compared to Student-Student/Class and to Group. Results show teachers provide knowledge for most of the classroom time, rather than guide, where more pair and group work is used. The same applies to experience, as discussed above.

The next COLT category is content, which focuses on the kind of activities used. When teachers (N=23) were asked if it is possible to teach grammar through communicative activities without explanation or drilling, 87% said it is not possible, and 13% said it is possible with simple structures (see Table 6.27 for the division of Education and experience). This is consistent with teachers' answers when they (N=23) were asked in another question if they explain grammar or teach it implicitly,

78% said they explain and drill, and 22% said they only drill (see Table 6.28. for the division of Education and experience). The COLT results further showed consistency in teachers' answers as they showed teachers with an Education background spending significantly more time (P-value=.001) on Form compared to the time they spent on teaching Function, as well as other meaningful activities such as silent reading, oral presentation and set book content. The same for those with no Education background, as they spent significantly more time (P-value=.012) on Form compared with set book content, oral presentation and silent reading. No significant differences were found between Education and no Education groups in the time they spent on Form, according to the Mann-Whitney Test, except for Function, where those with no Education background spent more time on it (P-value=.010) compared with the other group. Results suggest teachers spent similar time on the subcategory Form. As discussed above, teachers with an Education background have been prepared to teach communicatively, whether during their pre-service training, as discussed above, or their in-service training, and the *Teacher's Guide*. Still, results show no contribution from Education to teachers' practice. The same applies to experience, where significantly more time was spent on Form compared to Function, set book content and oral presentation (P-value=.043/.043/.001) by the most, medium and least experienced groups respectively. The Kruskal Wallis Test further compared teachers with different experiences and showed no significant differences in time spent on Form or the other subcategories, which showed that teachers were spending a similar time on them.

Focusing on form is further shown when teachers (N=23) were asked if it is possible to teach fluency before accuracy or both at the same time: 48% said it is possible to teach fluency before accuracy, 43% said it is possible to teach both at the same time, and 9% said it is possible to teach accuracy before fluency (see Table 6.29 for the division of Education and experience). When teachers (N=23) were asked in another question if they teach fluency before accuracy or both, 53% said they do both at the same time, 30% said they teach fluency before accuracy, 13% said accuracy before fluency, and one teacher said it depends on the situation (see Table 6.30 for the division of Education and experience). So, when it comes to real practice, teachers teach both, as they are told by the English Inspectorate and their *Teacher's Guide*. Still, the COLT results showed teachers with an Education background spending

significantly more time (P-value=.001) on Form compared to the time they spent on teaching Function, as well as other meaningful activities such as silent reading, oral presentation (to develop pupils' fluency) and set book content. The same was noted for those with no Education background. Results show teachers spent more time on the subcategory Form and on accuracy compared to meaning and fluency. As discussed above, the Mann-Whitney Test showed those with no Education background spent more time on Function (P-value=.011) compared with the other group. As for experience, see the discussion above.

Focus on Form also showed in teachers' (N=23) responses to the question of whether it is possible to ignore errors. A large number of teachers (78%) said it is possible and 22% said it is not possible (see Table 6.32 for the division of Education and experience). When further asked which errors to ignore, of those 78%, 48% said grammatical errors, 22% said simple errors, one said all errors, and one said it depends on the aim of the lesson (see Table 6.33 for the division of education and experience). In another question teachers (N=23) were also asked how often they correct errors, and 65% said they always correct (see table 6.34 for the division of Education and experience), 78% said immediately and 22% said after the activity (see Table 6.35 for the division of Education and experience). So, it is possible to ignore errors, yet they say they do not, even though they were told to by the English Inspectorate and their *Teacher's Guide.* The COLT results showed teachers with an Education background spending significantly more time (P-value=.001) on Form compared to the time they spent on teaching Function, as well as other meaningful activities such as silent reading, oral presentation, and set book content, as discussed above. The same applies to those with no Education background, as discussed above. Results show teachers spent more time on the subcategory Form and accuracy, compared to meaning and fluency. My detailed observation notes as well as the tape recordings of the lessons also showed teachers correcting all the time. As for experience, see the discussion above.

When teachers (N=23) were asked if it is possible to teach the four skills equally well, 83% said it is not possible, 13% said it is possible, and one teacher said it depends on the lesson (see Table 6.38 for the division of Education and experience). When teachers (N=23) were further asked which skill they spent more time on, sixteen of

the twenty three teachers said reading aloud, and when asked why they said because pupils are bad at reading and the curriculum focuses on it. The COLT results are consistent with teachers' answers as they showed teachers with an Education background spending significantly more time (P-value=.001) on skills combined with speaking, compared with skills combined without speaking or taught separately. The same for those with no Education background, as they spent significantly more time (P-value=.012) on skills combined with speaking compared with skills combined without speaking or taught separately. Significant differences were found for those with no Education background in skills combined with speaking (P-value=.005) and in silent reading (P-value=.048), compared to those with an Education background, according to the Mann-Whitney Test. Results show teachers not spending equal time on the 4 skills and some skills getting more focus, which is confirmed by teachers' responses. As discussed at the beginning of this chapter and in Chapter Three, teachers have been introduced during their in-service training, and their pre-service training for those with an Education background, as well as their *Teachers' Guide,* to the Communicative Approach and weak CLT. Despite this, there is no contribution from Education to teachers' practices as far as this category. The same applies to experience, where significantly more time was spent on skills combined with speaking compared to skills combined without speaking or taught separately (P-value=.043/.043/.001) among groups of most, medium and least experience respectively. The Kruskal Wallis Test further compared those skills between groups of different experiences and found no significant differences.

As to who controls content in the classroom, when teachers (N=23) were asked the same question above about whether it is practical for a teacher to be a guide with young learners, 61% said it is not practical, while 30% said it is practical, and 9% said only with clever pupils. When asked if they guide or provide knowledge for their learners, 91% said both guide and provide (see Table 6.37 for division of Education and experience). So, far teachers' answers are consistent. However, COLT results showed teachers with an Education background spent significantly more time (P-value=.001) on the subcategory Teacher-Text compared with Student or Teacher-Text-Student. The same is true for those with no Education background, where teachers spent significantly more time (P-value=.012) on Teacher-Text compared to Teacher-Text-Student. The Mann-Whitney Test showed no differences between

groups as they all spent more time on Teacher-Text compared with the other COLT subcategories. This showed that teachers control and provide knowledge more than they guide. Although teachers have been introduced to CLT during their university training for those with Education background, there is no contribution from Education on teachers' practices as far as this category. The same applies to experience, where significantly more time was spent on Teacher-Text COLT subcategories compared to teacher-Text-Student and Student (P-value=.042/.042/.001) among groups of most, medium and least experience respectively. The Kruskal Wallis Test further compared groups of different experiences and found no significant differences. Teaching is teacher-centred instead of pupil-centred.

As for materials, when teachers (N=23) were asked if it is possible to use authentic materials with children. Most teachers (91%) said it is possible, and 9% said it is not. When later asked if they use authentic materials with their learners, 70% said they use authentic materials, and 30% said they do not. Of the 70%, 39% said their learners have no difficulties, and 31% said they do have difficulties. So far, teachers' answers are consistent. However, according to COLT results (I did not calculate this subcategory of COLT for reasons discussed in Chapter Four) teachers used the tape recorder, wall charts, flash cards, blackboard, textbook, and worksheets that are prepared for EFL classroom use. As for authentic materials such as songs, stories, CDs, DVDs, computers and magazines, none were seen used during the 46 classroom observations. The only authentic materials that some teachers used were a few real objects to explain the new vocabulary. Reasons for not using the other authentic materials mentioned above were given by teachers in this chapter with regard to constraints put on teachers' practices.

To conclude, teachers have been introduced to the Communicative Approach during their pre-service training, for those with Education background, and they were also introduced to the Kuwaiti integrated approach (weak CLT) and the PPP technique during their in-service training and Longman training course, as well as in their *Teacher's Guide,* as discussed in Chapter Three. Teachers' interviews showed teachers have the knowledge and are aware of the principles and techniques of CLT, however they find some of CLT principles hard to implement because of constraints related to teaching children, to testing, to shortage of time, to shortage of resources and to form-

focused textbooks and most often were told not to do things, e.g. use stories, songs, by the English Inspectorate. Still, teachers also reported during the interview that, although they were told by the English Inspectorate and their *Teacher's Guide* not to overcorrect and to do it only after the activity, they find it necessary to correct so it will not stick in the pupil's mind. They were also told by the English Inspectorate and their *Teacher's Guide* to teach structures through the communicative activity without explanation, they find it hard not to explain. Teachers also reported that sometimes they were told to do things that, if they had the freedom, they would have done differently. For example, they were told by the English Inspectorate to use specific questions such as multiple choice and matching pictures or sentences in the exercises and worksheets as well as tests (see Chapter Three); if they had the freedom they would have used more communicative activities. The next point to discuss is how what teachers know and what they say they do, as well as what they actually do, is seen in light of what is known about CLT principles and curriculum goals. This will be discussed in Chapter Seven.

Conclusion

7.0 Introduction

The aim of the present study, as indicated in the introduction of this thesis is to find out whether CLT is actually implemented in EFL primary classrooms in Kuwait, based on a literature review that has shown other EFL countries, such as Japan, Qatar, and Taiwan, are facing constraints on CLT implementation in their primary classrooms. This study thus investigated, using Kuwait as a case study, how all the components of primary EFL delivery work together (or not) towards the fulfilment of national curriculum goals. The study focused largely on whether teachers in Kuwait were implementing a weak CLT-based learner-centred method, as stated in the goals of this curriculum and in the *Teacher's Guide*, and looked at how teachers' knowledge and beliefs reflected their undergraduate background and their in-service training and whether these mapped onto their classroom practice.

This chapter will start by summarizing the major findings of this study, and then it will answer the research questions one by one in the order of their presentation in the preceding chapters. There will be a discussion of the findings from two perspectives: their relation to the hypotheses stated in Chapter Four; and their relation to previous literature. Implications of the study will then be discussed, followed by a discussion of the study's limitations and suggestions for further research. The chapter will end with some concluding remarks.

7.1 Major findings:

A. The components of foreign language delivery

The components, namely teacher training programmes, textbook/materials, assessment and teacher practice, were not working in harmony with each other nor towards curriculum goals and programme objectives. There was a missing link whereby assessments, as well as the textbooks, were found to be form-focused, while the Guide and teacher training programmes prepared teachers to implement a CLT-based learner-centred method as well as the goals stated in the curriculum.

One of the central aspects of their teaching was that teachers had the wrong perception about how much English they spoke. They stated in the interview that they did not speak English all the time; they thought that teaching young children would force them to use more Arabic than English, based on their knowledge that young learners are still developing vocabulary, for example. But observation showed teachers speaking English fluently most of the time, using gestures and body language when the need arose, to avoid using Arabic except for a few instances where they needed to translate a word or two. Although teachers' perceptions about themselves were not quite accurate, their ability to speak English all the time revealed their readiness to teach communicatively.

7.2 Research questions

7.2.1 How do the components of FL delivery work together and towards the fulfilment of National Curriculum goals, which specify a CLT-based learner-centred method?

By 'work together', it was meant a situation where the components were not in opposition to one another. The national curriculum states communicative goals which are expected to be reflected in the kind of activities and exercises used in the textbook and Guide. Assessment was expected to reflect textbook content which are communicative. Teachers prepare learners for assessment and should be teaching communicatively. As discussed in Chapter Two these components of FL delivery including teacher training should work in harmony towards the fulfilment of curriculum goals (Brown, 1995; Richards, 2001). Based on curriculum goals, suitable textbook/materials are chosen, as they are the tools for implementing a syllabus (Ellis, 1992). Assessment measures how the learner is doing; in effect, whether the programme is successful as to the implementation of curriculum goals. As pointed out in Chapter Two, Cameron (2001) says that assessment controls what teachers teach and how they teach it. It is a powerful factor and needs as careful consideration as any other component in light of curriculum goals. Training programmes are needed to provide teachers with the skills and knowledge to deliver the curriculum by using the textbook and other materials and to conduct assessment as best they can (Kreeft, 1997). Teachers need not only subject knowledge, but also pedagogical knowledge to be able to transmit their knowledge to learners in a way that suits their age and style

of learning. As discussed in Chapter Two, to learn a language, children need exposure to target language input, at least at the beginning, and they should increasingly be focused on output (see Lightbown & Spada, 2006). This should be reflected in teachers' practice in the classroom by the methodology used. When components work together McGrath (2002) says:

> In a carefully designed approach to language teaching we might expect a high degree of consistency between aims, objectives, syllabus, materials and method. (2002:217)

In Chapter Three we examined curriculum goals, which state that the main goal of Kuwait's EFL curriculum is

> to develop learners' communicative and linguistic competence in using English fluently and accurately. (*Curriculum Document*, 2005:6)

The document describes a CLT-based learner-centred method where focus on accuracy is stated in the competencies and objectives, and fluency is stated in the standards and benchmarks, and it includes integration of the four language skills to promote students' effective and accurate communication.

As we saw in Chapter Three, this dichotomy has the potential to result in classroom practice that is language- and accuracy-based, instead of communicative- and fluency-based. Standards and benchmarks are inconsistent with competencies and objectives. Even though textbooks and workbooks provide exercises and activities to develop both pupils' accuracy and fluency, the amount of exercises that focus on accuracy for its own sake are considerably more numerous compared to those that are meaning-oriented. The *Teacher's Guide* strengthens this tendency by asking teachers to use 'Present, Practice, Produce' to plan their lessons. The teacher provides knowledge during presentation and practice but, where pupils are expected to produce sentences of their own, the classroom observation results discussed in Chapter Five, revealed no such free communication. Neither the interviews nor observation showed much use of activities, such as journal writing, projects and story writing provided in the *Guide,* to develop fluency and creativity. Thus although the *Guide* is CLT-based and learner-centred, using an 'integrated approach' that presents grammar and functions to enable communication with accuracy, these *Curriculum Document* goals are abandoned with textbooks that are more form-focused than communicative. To repair this missing link, more communicative activities could be included in the textbooks, where the

focus is not on merely practicing memorized language and where pupils are allowed to interact together freely, trying to use English.

Critically, the end-of-term written discrete-point and form-focused achievement tests strengthen this tendency. They test memorized information from the textbook and sub-skills in controlled situations (see Table 3.6 in Ch. 3). The assessment of oral production only evaluates students on classroom participation, and is separate from the achievement tests. The teachers base their evaluation of students' oral ability on general observation and there is no criterion for evaluating oral skills. For example, the oral fluency activity, as teachers reported during the interview, does not show pupils' actual ability as it is usually done by their parents at home and pupils read it in class. It is also a one-way exercise and does not show pupils' ability to interact and communicate with others. Thus the one opportunity students have to be assessed on their ability to communicate in English is not taken as seriously. One can see how assessment is in accordance with the textbooks but not with parts of the *Guide* or the *Curriculum Document* that aims for not only linguistic, but also communicative, competence.

As discussed in Chapter Three, a key component of EFL delivery is the training, which provides teachers with the necessary information to understand and use a CLT-based learner-centred method, as well as how to teach young learners. This includes their university education and the Longman training course. All teachers, no matter what their university major or experience, should ideally be able to implement CLT-based learner-centred techniques included in the book with ease.

If the *Teacher's Guide* and the teacher training programmes are CLT-based/learner-centred, working towards the fulfilment of the *Curriculum Document* main goal, the textbooks and assessment are mainly form-focused and teacher-centred. A description of the components suggested they were not working together towards the fulfilment of the Kuwaiti Curriculum. Based on these documents it was still not clear how teachers were handling this contradiction. I wanted to find out whether teachers were doing what they had been trained to do, whether they were following the *Guide* and following the Ministry of Education assessment guidelines. I wanted to find out

whether these contradictions had a positive, negative or neutral effect on their practice. Only classroom observation could reveal what was going on.

7.2.2 Are teachers implementing a CLT-based learner-centred method?

Recall the COLT categories from Chapter Five, and how teachers were divided, to see if training had an effect. According to 'Participant Organization', regardless of their university majors, teachers spent more time in control of all interaction and less time allowing students to interact with each other or with the whole class. The only difference seen between these two groups was in their use of whole class repetition, or "Choral", where Education teachers used this technique significantly more often than the others did. The results for 'Content Control' showed all teachers, regardless of pre-service training, were invariably in control, using the text. This does not echo Chapman, Chen and Postiglione (2000), who investigated the role of in-service training on improving teachers' content and pedagogical knowledge in China. They found that better trained teachers were less teacher-centred at primary but more at secondary. They concluded that teacher training programmes showed a small but positive contribution to teachers' practice.

Most of the literature reports on what is expected of teachers once they graduate from university with all the necessary knowledge to allow them to implement CLT in their classrooms with ease. However, studies on CLT implementation discussed in Chapter Two, as well as the present study, report that the situation is different once teachers are actually teaching due to pressures on teachers' practice from within the classroom and from above. As seen in this study and other studies, teachers reported that there are a number of constraints such as time, a long curriculum, assessment that is form-focused, the textbooks that focus on accuracy rather than fluency, difficulty in using group work activities, and pupils being unable to speak English in groups/pairs. Teachers in the present study also reported that they were told by the English Inspectorate to use specific questions during achievement tests and not to use material outside the textbooks.

Not only education/training, but also experience, plays a role in teachers' knowledge. Those with more experience are expected to have more knowledge and skills, gained from years of teaching. Here, the literature suggests that experienced teachers are more aware of their learners and are more learner-centred:

> The expert teachers' conceptions of children's learning emphasize the importance of active involvement and the value of exploration in open-ended activities. (Castejon & Martinez, 2001:121)

A review of research investigating differences between expert and novice teachers conducted by Hogan, Rabinowitz & Craven (2003) has shown an effect of experience on teachers' practice. Although the authors state that the majority of those studies used small sample sizes, which makes it hard to generalize their results, the studies give enough descriptions of the differences between the expert and novice teachers' behaviour. Through the years, teachers accumulate considerable knowledge of how best to teach children, what works in the classroom and what does not. Experience constitutes not only part of teachers' knowledge, but also their beliefs. In the present study, COLT results showed that those with more experience used teacher-centred activities significantly more than those with less. Again this result does not support the hypothesis or the Hogan et al. (2003) review above. Teacher observation failed to show any contribution of experience to any of the differences found between groups, and all teachers focused on form/accuracy more than content/fluency, and were equally language-centred.

'Student Modality' results showed that pre-service training did not make a difference: those who did not major in education spent more time on two learner-centred subcategories, namely 'Silent Reading' and 'Combination with Speaking', compared with those who did. One would expect the opposite, as those who are well prepared with considerable knowledge in CLT and applied linguistics would spend more time on the subcategories reflecting learner-centred behaviour. A possible explanation is that those with education majors become more teacher-centred with experience and gain the confidence to take more control of their classrooms. However, results also showed no contribution from experience on the differences between groups. One possibility here is that this is the effect of pre-service courses, such as Classroom Management, which made teachers exert more control over their classrooms. A third possibility is the first two Ps of the PPP technique used in the *Guide,* which demands

that the teacher presents and practices all activities and exercises with pupils as a group and that the teacher initiates and controls all interaction in the classroom. All teachers, with different levels of experience, combined other skills with speaking in the same way. Here an explanation could be that the text/materials combine skills, shown in Chapter Three, and teachers' practice simply echoes that.

A major finding of this study was that teachers in general implemented a non-learner-centred method in their teaching, despite university courses that prepare them to teach differently, and despite skills in speaking English. This was likely the result of teachers teaching to the test: when these tests, as described in Chapter Three, were language-centred focusing on grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation and not on communicative acts or functions, it was expected that teachers' practices would reflect that. We can conclude that teachers were not implementing a learner-centred method, although they were capable of doing so. But we still needed to find out why this was the case. This was done in this study by finding out whether teachers' knowledge and behaviour were consistent. One of the means used to determine this was a structured interview of teachers to investigate their knowledge, beliefs (7.2.3), along with there perceptions (7.2.4) of their own practice.

7.2.3 Do teachers' knowledge and beliefs map onto their practice and to the other components of FL delivery?

We determined that teachers knew from their university studies and training courses, e.g. the Longman training course and the *Guide,* what CLT principles were and how to teach communicatively. The COLT results presented in Chapter Five showed classrooms were teacher-centred rather than learner-centred, and form-focused rather than communicative. In the context of their learner-centred training, teachers' beliefs were found to be in harmony with their teacher-centred practice. For example, teachers expressed a belief in error correction and in teaching grammar explicitly; it thus seems some beliefs override university or in-service training but are consistent with what they do. Here this could be the result of the way teachers were taught English themselves. We know from past national curricula that these teachers were taught grammar explicitly with lots of error correction and memorization of vocabulary. Since they were successful, based on the English proficiency they

revealed during observation, they likely believed this was the best way to teach a language. This could also be because they were never shown how to relate theory to practice during their practicum. Related to this is the possibility that they do not think that theories are relevant, and ideas based on them can actually be implemented in the classroom.

In fact, some of what the teachers said in the interview shows that they either did not understand or did not retain information from their training or what the *Guide* asks them to do. For example, teachers said that a child learns better than an adult; pupils should be pushed to communicate from the beginning of language learning; and CLT will only result in fluency. They appeared not to know what communicative competence entails as regards the four competencies, although they had been taught about CLT in their pre-service and in-service courses. As to teachers' beliefs, they showed a need to correct errors immediately, and a need to explain grammar explicitly, because they believed that teaching grammar communicatively or implicitly would not work. The interview results showed that teachers' beliefs, and part of their knowledge in relation to the issues above, did not echo their training or what the *Guide* and the English Inspectorate asked them to do. Their training, along with the *Guide* and the English Inspectorate (except for assessment and use of authentic materials), prepared and asked them to implement a CLT-learner-centred method. However, teachers' beliefs in error correction and the explicit teaching of grammar were found to be connected to their implementation of a language-centred method. The end result was inconsistency between what teachers' were taught at university and what they do in their classrooms.

When it comes to the grouping of teachers by training and experience, it was found that overall those with no Education background were least consistent in their answers; the beliefs of this group often contradicted each other. For example, they unanimously said that pupils should be pushed to communicate, yet many of them said that learners can acquire language accurately only from primary linguistic data. For one question they said that using language communicatively would result in accuracy and fluency, for another they said they believed that they needed to explain grammar and to correct immediately because communication was not enough. As to the contribution of experience, teachers were more consistent in their beliefs. Those

with more experience believed that using language communicatively would result in accuracy and fluency and in the need to correct after an activity and to correct errors of meaning, while the less experienced teachers believed that using language communicatively would result in fluency only, and they expressed a belief in the need to correct immediately and to correct errors of both language and meaning.

Answers to this research question further revealed that the components of FL delivery in Kuwait were not working together towards the fulfilment of CLT-based curriculum goals. One of the central components, teacher training, which indeed focused on CLT, was found not to map onto the other components of FL delivery. What we still did not know was whether teachers' perception of their own practice was borne out in their actual practice. The inconsistency found revealed a gap between theory and practice, leading to a more general question: does theory, as far as the CLT principles discussed by applied linguists and educationalists, link to teachers' practice? In Chapter Two we looked at studies done in many EFL countries which showed CLT principles are frequently not implemented in primary classrooms.

7.2.4 Do teachers' perceptions of their own practice match up with their actual practice?

In Chapter Six, we saw from the interviews that most of the teachers' responses in relation to the use of authentic material, group/pair work, the teacher speaking English at all times during classroom routines and management, fluency vs. accuracy, the teacher as a guide vs. a provider of knowledge, and testing communicative competence, were not consistent with their actual behaviour in the classroom according to the COLT results presented in Chapter Five. Teachers said that they used authentic materials while observation showed only a few of them do so, where they used real objects to illustrate vocabulary. They said they used both group and pair work and that they guided and provided knowledge, while the COLT results showed teacher control of content and classroom interaction. Teachers said that they taught fluency before or along with accuracy, but the COLT results showed them spending much more time on accuracy. Interestingly this cannot have come from the *Guide* or the Longman training course, both of which direct them to teach fluency and accuracy together. As to measuring communicative competence, teachers said they do it orally

(see oral fluency activity under assessment), but classroom observation and the Ministry of Education assessment guidelines showed one-way interaction and a lack of clear criteria, respectively. These measurements turn out to demonstrate grammatical competence, but not key communicative competencies, e.g. sociolinguistic, strategic. It is possible that because children are still developing cognitively and socially, these competencies may develop at later stages, and it is therefore not reasonable to expect evidence of these. However, the oral classroom activity observed was reading aloud what pupils had prepared, giving them no opportunity to start to develop communicative competence. These findings are roughly similar to Al-Khwaiter's (2001) who found in his pilot study a discrepancy between teachers' beliefs during an interview and their practice during observation which led to inclusion of an interview and a classroom observation in his main study. He found that classrooms were teacher-centred, teachers used Arabic a lot, they rarely used pair/group work activities, and taught to the test, which focussed on accuracy and memorization of textbook content. But he did not include the above research question on teachers' perceptions of their own practice. In going beyond Al-Khwaiter's study, the present study also found that teachers' perception of their own practice does not always match their actual practice, and the study was able to relate this finding to the other components of EFL delivery to show missing links between them.

An additional point of interest was that the tape-recorded material and classroom observation revealed teachers at the primary level in Kuwait spoke English most of the time in class. Surprisingly, teachers said in the interview they did not speak English all the time, yet the COLT data showed teachers used English up to 95% of the time in the classroom. Importantly, this is in contrast with the various EFL countries, discussed in Chapter Two (e.g. Al-Khwaiter, 2001 in Qatar, Crawford, 2001 in Taiwan), where one of the constraints frequently noted on CLT implementation was teachers not being qualified enough to speak English all the time in class, resulting in their using their L1 and failing to teach communicatively. In Kuwait teachers are well prepared to teach communicatively as they have the English skills to provide input and the courses they took showed that they knew about how

children learn, and how best to teach them using CLT.[1] This is a very important finding because it reveals that teachers' skills and knowledge are probably not the constraints they are assumed to be. I would like to argue that the paucity of communicative activities in the textbook, the form-focused achievement tests proposed by the English Inspectorate, the English Inspectorate's directions to teachers to not use outside materials and to stick to the main textbook, and finally teachers' own beliefs about how best to teach English, constitute the main constraints on teachers' implementation of a CLT-based learner-centred method.

7.3 Implications of the study

As discussed in Chapter Two, language learning educationalists (e.g. Brown, 1995; Nation, 1996; Richards, 2001) state that the components of FL delivery, namely text/materials, assessment, teacher training, and teacher practice, should all work in harmony towards the delivery of curriculum goals. This study has illustrated that the components do not map onto one another as illustrated in Table 7.1 below.

Table 7.1 The relationship between the six components of FL delivery in Kuwait including theory

	Theory	Goals	Textbook	Guide	Assessment	Training	Practice
Goals	✓	------	x	✓	x	✓	x
Textbook	x	x	------	x	✓	x	✓
Guide	✓	✓	x	------	x	✓	x
Assessment	x	x	✓	x	------	x	✓
Training	✓	✓	x	✓	x	------	x
Practice	x	x	✓	x	✓	x	------
Theory	------	✓	x	✓	x	✓	x

x they do not map
✓ they do map

Why is it the case that teachers' practice does not map onto the other components of FL delivery, such as curriculum goals, as seen in so many primary EFL contexts,

[1] As discussed in Chapter Three, teachers took Applied Linguistics, Teaching English to Young Learners 1 & 2, Seminar= English to Young Learners, Primary School Curriculum and Teaching Practice courses at university.

knowing that young learners are prepared to soak up a second language? Jacobs and Farrell (2003) in their article *Understanding and implementing the CLT paradigm,* say that CLT has been partially implemented because educators have focused on the method and left out other factors, e.g. the above components of FL delivery.

This study further showed that teachers' perceptions of their own practice did not match their actual practice according to the COLT results, which reflected a missing link between theory and practice. Things were seen to be possible in theory, but in practice there were constraints. Teachers wanted to be, and thought they were being, learner-centred, but COLT showed that they taught differently, or to the test. In this respect the study's findings pointed to the influential role of assessment in FL delivery. Assessment seemed to control what teachers taught, as well as the English Inspectorate that dictated the kind of assessment used; teachers were seen teaching to the test. This was similar to findings of other studies (e.g. Zhang, 1997; Gebhard, 1999; Ackers & Hardman, 2001; Al-Khwaiter, 2001; Crawford, 2001; Kirkgoz, 2006) using classroom observations and interviews or questionnaires (e.g. Yang, 2000; Al-Mutawa, 2003) had shown teachers in other EFL countries, e.g. China, Qatar, Taiwan, reporting use of form-focused and discrete point tests of pupils' memorized vocabulary and grammar. Because tests were form-focused, teachers spent most of classroom time providing knowledge of forms rather than guiding pupils through activities that were meaning-focused that, in the case of Kuwait, existed in the *Teacher's Guide*.

This raises the issue of assessment. Can assessment be fixed towards a learner-centred method? The Council of Europe Framework of Reference (CEFR) proposes six levels of proficiency (Council of Europe, 2001). These start with basic user which is sub-divided into two levels: A2 and A1. Learners at A2 level, for example, can understand sentences in familiar situations, can communicate with simple frequently used vocabulary, and on familiar topics. The next level is the independent user, also divided into B1 and B2, and finally the proficient user, divided into C1 and C2. At C2 level, learners can understand everything they hear or read and can summarize it and can express themselves fluently. These levels are meant to facilitate assessment of pupils' performance but the discussion of studies which have showed this is beyond the scope of this thesis.

Similarly, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) has developed performance guidelines for assessing the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing (Curtain & Dahlberg, 2004). These guidelines state specific behaviour beginning with the novice level, moving up to the intermediate, then to the advanced level, and ending with the superior level. As for the CEFR, these levels describe stages of proficiency. For example, the novice level is broken up into three sub-levels: novice low, novice mid and novice high. The novice low pupil, for example, can produce isolated high-frequency words and phrases but can not function in communicative situations. The novice high pupil, however, is more able to communicate using learned utterances, can ask questions, but makes lots of errors (Curtain & Dahlberg, ibid).

Furthermore, Curtain & Dahlberg (2004) in their book *Languages and Children-Making the Match,* as well as Wiggins & Mctighe (2005), recommend the use of rubrics, where a set of criteria is developed to describe levels of performance. For example, for oral presentation, a rubric can be developed for four levels, where one stands for the poorest performance, and four stands for the best performance. Criteria include pronunciation, fluency, comprehensibility, vocabulary and performance.

It is important that ministries of education re-examine assessment in the light of national curriculum goals. Once assessment is set as to what we want our learners to be able to do at the end of the course, then we can choose text/materials and prepare teacher training programmes that match with what we examine.[2] Again, discussion of the studies that have emerged from the different types of assessment this might involve is unfortunately beyond the scope of this thesis.

Another implication of this study is related to programme planning. For planning various components of EFL programmes, some sort of committee is typically formed by a ministry of education. In Kuwait this committee's responsibilities included the production of the curriculum document, textbooks and other materials. Such a committee can potentially link all the various components together, and spot where links are missing or weak. This is probably not the case worldwide, and was clearly

[2] See e.g. Wiggins and McTighe (2005) who said in their book *Understanding by Design* that we need to start with assessment and work backwards to what to teach and how to teach it.

not the case in Kuwait. The committee that produced the curriculum document, the textbooks/materials, and the Longman Training Course, as discussed in Chapter Three, did not set assessment guidelines, or oversee pre-service training, which is planned and conducted by the University. The former were set by the English Inspectorate and so were in-service training courses but not the University curriculum.

To address these problems, first any committee or permanent body, like an inspectorate, should include representation from all those involved in an EFL programme. The committee should not only consist of educational theorists, but primary school teachers, head teachers, principals as well as English inspectors. English inspectors are the ones who follow up teachers in schools, observe them teach and give them feedback. The University needs to work with a body such as the Ministry of Education in teacher preparation to link theory, i.e. what student teachers study during their pre-service programmes, with practice, i.e. what teachers are being trained to do once they finish their study and start teaching. In EFL countries, teachers have little or no say in curriculum design, textbooks, or assessment. In Kuwait, for example, the University does not follow up teachers once they start to teach; the Ministry of Education in the form of the Inspectorate does. This is similar to other EFL contexts (Lo Castro, 1996 in Japan; Zhang, 1997 in China) where teachers have no say in curriculum design and they have to follow orders from educational authorities, even if these contrast with their own beliefs or knowledge. Yet classroom teachers, head teachers and principals are in the field and are the implementers of the curriculum; if they are consulted as individuals who have been prepared to implement a CLT curriculum during their pre-service education, then this will help work out problems in applying the theories and ideas they have learned during their actual practice including their understanding of curriculum design.[3]

Another implication of this study is that we need to better train teachers to reduce their control over their classrooms in order to allow their pupils to take responsibility for their own learning, i.e. to create learner-centred classrooms; there is a weak link between what teachers have been trained to do and what they actually do. Do studies of EFL countries that report teachers in control, dominating classroom, initiating all interaction and asking all the questions (e.g. Al-Khwaiter, 2001; Ackers & Hardman,

[3] They have been taught about curriculum design in a course called Primary School Curriculum.

2001; Al-Haji, 2004; Kirkgoz, 2006) show that this is because it makes teachers' jobs easier when they exert this sort of control in their classrooms? In some EFL countries (e.g. Al-Khwaiter, 2001 in Qatar; Ackers & Hardman, 2001 in Kenya; Kirkgoz, 2006 in Turkey) teachers are not as well prepared to teach communicatively, i.e. in theory, which could be reflected in practice. In Kuwait, teachers are well trained in theory, but what they are missing is how to better link theory with practice. With better training, teachers can encourage learners to initiate interaction and ask questions, guiding them rather than just giving information. Teachers know that children are active risk takers who like to talk and work in pairs or groups and they can make use of children's potential and teach communicatively (Curtain & Pesola, 1994; Cameron, 2001; Brewster, Ellis & Girard, 2004).

An issue raised by this study, which is important as it has an effect on the way teachers teach and pupils learn, is the educational culture. Teachers in Kuwait, similar to teachers in many other EFL countries, teach to the test and are seen by students and parents as knowledge providers and figures of authorities. Pupils are passive, relying on the teacher to give them all the information they need (Brown, 2000; Al-Khwaiter, 2001; Yu, 2001). This teacher-centred behaviour places all the responsibility on the teacher for students' learning. The teacher is the one who decides what to teach, when to teach it, and when and how to assess pupils. Learner-centred behaviour gives more responsibility to learners for their own learning. The teacher provides learners with some information and encourages them to find out more about a topic (Knowles, 1975; Clark, 2001). Once teachers assign different roles for themselves and their pupils, it reduces the teaching load on teachers. Teachers have more time to observe their learners learn and are more able to detect any problems pupils have. Once pupils are involved in their learning, they are more motivated, they learn more, and learning, in general, is facilitated. The interview results pointed to the possibility of training pupils to be independent learners in all subjects, not just English.

The extensive literature review at the start of this thesis has shown that since the 1970s, CLT has been included in worldwide curricula, and up to the time this thesis is written, this seems not to have changed. Yet there are clearly problems with implementation. There are two possible explanations for this: first, CLT does not provide teachers with a set of steps to follow in their classrooms (Richards &

Rodgers, 2001); second, for teachers the ideas underlying CLT are vague, and teachers are not shown how to translate them into practice. Moreover, this is not the way teachers were taught. In addition, the link between CLT and assessment is not made. This results in persistence of the methods it replaces (GTM and ALM). However, the reasons behind the adoption of CLT still exist: to help learners become communicatively competent (Savignon, 1997). Up to the present, teachers all over the world complain that their pupils are not able to function communicatively (Crawford, 2001; Kirkgoz, 2006). The idea that pupils will one day be able to function communicatively is what continues to make CLT appealing to teachers and educationalists. The idea of CLT is also still alive and thriving up to the present time because its principles consider the learners as individuals and how to give them more control over their learning, allowing them to speak and to initiate interaction (Mitchell, 1994; Savignon, 1997; Pachler, 2000).

The findings of the present study along with the literature review nonetheless call us to question whether CLT is actually the best method. As Prabhu (1990), Richards & Rodgers (2001), and Kumaravadivelu (2006) ask, is there a best method? Focusing only on method has led researchers to ignore the other factors that influence teachers' practice, e.g. teacher, pupil, context, local politics, culture. The present study, and other studies, e.g. Crawford (2001) and Kirkgoz (2006), have found that teachers, although trained to implement CLT, fail to do so. This has led to the recent trend in thinking beyond method to a post-method situation, as suggested by Richards & Rodgers (2001) and Kumaravadivelu (2006). Under this idea teacher educators provide teachers with the skills and knowledge to make wise decisions as to what techniques to use to reach their pre-planned goals. Teachers, throughout their teaching career, then gather insights into what good teaching is; this adds to the skills and knowledge of their initial training and guides them in making their decisions as to what best suits their learners, including what to teach and how to teach it.

Unlike other EFL countries, teachers in Kuwait are well trained and have the skills to speak and teach English effectively. They are equipped to make principled decisions and should be able to follow objectives and goals stated once they are given a bit of freedom. This study showed that teachers are constrained in their practice but by fewer factors than in other EFL countries. So, with a method or without a method the

situation is still the same. The solution to the problem is consideration of all the components, starting from the goals and objectives, and ending with teacher training. This may clarify things where it makes curriculum writers and teachers focus on what they need to achieve rather than the implementation of a specific method, and when their concern becomes the objectives and how to fulfil them, rather than the method and how to implement it.

Although this study examined the main components of EFL delivery and investigated teachers' practices, their knowledge, beliefs and perceptions in order to yield solid findings, there are limitations as well as other possible areas in which others can undertake research.

7.4 Limitations and future directions

While the present study aimed to go beyond classroom observation and interviews and look at all the components of FL delivery at one point in time, adding to the body of knowledge established by such researchers as Al-Khwaiter (2001), Crawford (2001) and Kirkgoz (2006), we only looked at teachers' practice to see whether they used CLT-based learner-centred method. The study did not look at what effect classroom practices had on pupils' achievement. In considering post-method, we should first investigate whether CLT works. The literature reveals a study that looked at achievement Jones & Wang's (2001) three-year study of one hundred and thirty four fourth, fifth, and sixth primary graders, investigated whether a CLT-based programme would improve Taiwanese primary school children's English skills. Teachers trained in CLT spoke primarily in English and used pair/group work, information-gap games, role plays, story telling, picture story writing, and letters. Classroom observation, pre- and post skills tests, pupil interviews and end of study survey showed improvement in all skill areas, but the authors noted that students' performance was still at the beginners' level given they spent two to three hours a week on English. A study of students' performance at the end of secondary school might be more valid, as it would be possible to test whether students' communicative competence eventually reaches a higher level.

The second and final limitation of the study is that only two classroom observations were conducted for every teacher, because it was assumed that teachers were consistent, particularly because they have one *Guide* and one main textbook and everything is pre-planned by the Ministry of Education. More observations may not have made a difference, but it may have in a different context where teachers have more freedom to choose, and where textbooks and materials are expected to differ. Moreover, the results might not be generalizable from public to private Kuwaiti schools, or as in other EFL countries, from urban to rural schools (e.g. Ackers & Hardman, 2001 in Kenya).

Although this study has limitations, as with other studies, the findings point to great potential for future research. As stated above, this study, although it looked at a number of factors at one time and the relationship between them, it did not look at the relationship between method and achievement. Future research that investigates the effect of language-centred vs. learner-centred methods might look at long-term performance, i.e. from the end of primary school or even end of secondary school. Perhaps a future study might also want to compare the method used in grade 1 with grade 5 EFL primary classrooms in Kuwait to find out whether these differ, and what the potential is for teachers to treat even younger children differently. As discussed above, young children are more receptive to a second language and are more willing to take risks than older learners. As seen in the findings from EFL studies worldwide, the investigation covered only the method used and neglected how other factors have an effect on the way teachers teach. Where the present and other studies worldwide (e.g. Stroupe et al. 1998; Al-Khwaiter, 2001; Kirkgoz, 2006) mention how assessment controls what teachers teach, a future study could investigate whether using CLT-based assessment would make teachers teach more communicatively.

7.5 Conclusion

Teachers in Kuwait are well prepared to implement a CLT-based learner-centred method with ease, compared to other EFL countries, some of which report that teachers lack such training; and Kuwaiti teachers are fluent speakers of English, while in other EFL countries such as Japan, Korea and Taiwan studies report teachers were not. In the primary context, learners are young, motivated and willing to take risks.

Given that teachers in Kuwait are more prepared and skilled than many, it is unfortunate that children's ability to learn is not taken better advantage of. A focus on the teacher, and his/her preparedness, and the learner rather than method may be the answer to our problems. Teachers in Kuwait have the knowledge to choose from a plethora of methods and techniques, and they need not be confined to one. If moving beyond method is the key, textbook and teachers' guide authors and inspectorates need to trust teachers. This includes letting them share in decision making and curriculum design and revision.

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Appendix A.1 Sample lessons from unit 13 and unit 14 taken from Hancock, M. (2005). *Fun with English*: *Teacher's Guide*- Grade 4.

UNIT 13

I'M PLANTING A TREE

LESSON ONE

Objectives	
Listening	Identify new structures, vocabulary and functions
	Identify different intonations
Speaking	Describe pictures related to the topic
Reading	Read a story related to the topic
	Guess the meaning of new words from context
	Guess information
Topic	Nature
Structures	Present simple and present continuous (R)
	need + noun
Functions	Asking for and giving information
	Communicate approval/disapproval
	Expressing opinion
Vocabulary	plant (v), shade, strong, too
Spelling	*turn, word, shirt, were, learn*
Resources/Materials	
	Pupil's Book, pages 10 and 11
	Cassette, Unit 13
	Wall charts: *Planets, Nature*
	Pictures of sports stars and actors

Revision

need

- Remind pupils of Unit 11. Ask: *'**What do plants and animals need to live?**'* Point to the wall chart: *Planets* to help them answer *'They need the sun.'* Write this on the board.
- Now ask: *'**Do they need water?**' 'Yes, they do.'* *'**What more do they need?**'* Brainstorm answers, e.g. *soil, air.*
- Now say: *'**What about us? What do we need to live?**'* Put their ideas on the board (food, drink, air, a house).
- Focus on the wall chart: *Nature*. Show the countryside, clean air, animals and trees. Revise vocabulary from previous levels, e.g. *fresh air, clean, smoke.*

Vocabulary

plant, strong, healthy (R)

- Revise *healthy*. Ask the pupils if they eat good food and have clean air. Ask if they like exercise. Say that people who eat good food, have clean air and exercise are healthy.
- Present *strong*. Then show pictures of sports stars and actors. Ask: *'**Who is strong? Who is healthy?**'*
- Now present *plant*. Pupils know the noun. Present the verb. Also present *shade*.

Pupil's Book, pages 10 and 11

1 Listen and read

- Focus on the pictures in the book. Put pupils into groups and give them two minutes to discuss what they think the story will be about.
- Discuss as a class.
- Now write on the board: *What is Nasser planting?* Play the tape. Pupils listen, read and then discuss the question. Elicit the answer (*a tree*).
- Ask them what other things you can plant (e.g. *flowers, plants, grass*).
- Play the tape again. Pupils listen and read, then read aloud.
- Check that they can understand the meaning of *too* from the context: *Brainy needs food, water and sunshine. Brainy needs exercise. Brainy needs food,*

Appendix A.1 Sample lessons from unit 13 and unit 14 taken from Hancock, M. (2005). *Fun with English*: *Teacher's Guide*- Grade 4.

water and sunshine, and exercise too!

- Say, e.g. *'I like football. I like tennis. So I like football and tennis ...'* Elicit too.
- Ask some comprehension questions, e.g. *'Why is he planting a tree?' 'Because trees give us food and shade. 'What lives in trees?' 'Lots of animals and birds.' 'Does Brainy need good food, sunshine and water?' 'Yes, he does.' 'Do trees need exercise?' 'No, they don't.' 'Does Brainy need exercise?' 'Yes, he does.'*

2 Read and answer

- Pupils answer the questions in pairs.
- Go over the answers as a class.

Answers:

a He's planting a tree.
b Because there are lots of trees.
c To grow tall and strong.
d They need trees for their homes.
e They don't need exercise.

Pronunciation

- Draw the pupils' attention to frame 2, *That's right,* frame 4: *Good.* and frame 7: *But you need exercise, too. Trees don't.* Listen to the tape again and/or say each sentence, then the pupils repeat, with the correct intonation to show approval/ disapproval.

End the lesson

- Talk about how we can all help Kuwait stay a healthy and clean place to live, e.g. *'Don't waste water'*, etc. Ask in what other school subjects do they learn about the, e.g. science, geography

LESSON TWO

Objectives	
Listening	Identify new structures, vocabulary and functions
	Comprehend instructions
Speaking	Retell events
	Describe pictures related to the topic
Reading	Read a story related to the topic
Writing	Use punctuation properly
	Copy sentences in cursive
Topic	Nature
Structures	Present simple and present continuous (R)
	need + noun
Functions	Asking for and giving information
	Expressing opinion
Resources/Materials	
	Pupil's Book, pages 10 and 11
	Workbook, page 7
	Handwriting Book, page 45
	Cassette, Unit 13
	Wall chart: *Nature*
	coloured pencils or pens

Memory game

- Focus on the wall chart: *Nature* and give the pupils two minutes to remember what is on it. Now take it down and ask them to write down as many words as they can think of to describe it. They can do this in pairs or groups. Give them a time limit of two minutes.
- Put their words on the board. See which group or pair can come up with the most.

Revise the previous lesson

- Divide the class into groups of three. Tell them that they must decide for themselves who will be Nasser, Sara and Brainy. Encourage them to make decisions themselves and to discuss what they should do. This will develop their independence and confidence.
- Get groups to act out the scene. They can do this in their own words to retell the story.

Pupil's Book, page 11

3 Look, choose and say

- Ask pupils to say all they can about the pictures. Then, read the words in the box to check that they understand them.
- Explain the task. Pupils look at the pictures and choose phrases from the box to make sentences to describe each picture. Do an example first, e.g. *This tree is/isn't strong. This tree has got good/bad soil.* etc.
- Pupils work in pairs. Go around and monitor their work.
- Get a few pupils to say their sentences to the class.

2 Make correct sentences

- Explain the task. Pupils match the two halves of each sentence and punctuate them correctly.
- Do the first one as an example. Pupils then work in pairs or individually.
- Go over their answers as a class.

Answers:

a Birds need trees for their homes.
b We are lucky to live in Kuwait.
c Trees need good soil, water and sunshine.
d Strong, tall trees give us food and shade.

Handwriting Book, page 45

- Pay attention to the formation of the *'ee'*.

End the lesson

- Ask pupils: ***Have you ever planted a tree? Where could you plant one? Where would the tree get air, sun and water?'*** (See also the project.)

Workbook, page 7

1 Listen, draw, write

- Focus on the book. Explain the task, You will give the pupils instructions of what to draw. They must listen carefully and draw a picture based on what they hear. Read the instructions slowly and clearly, pausing after each to allow time for them to draw.
- When they have finished, get the pupils (as a class or in pairs) to show and compare their pictures, e.g. *My trees are bigger/smaller than yours.* etc.

Listen, draw, write text:

1 Draw two trees.
2 Draw the sun in the sky.
3 Draw a bird in the first tree.
4 Draw a boy or a girl sitting under the second tree.
5 Draw some water close to the tree.
6 Colour the picture.
7 Write under the picture: Plant more trees.

LESSON THREE

Objectives	
Listening	Develop sound spelling strategies
	Identify different vowels in a listened-to material
	Identify different intonations
	Listen to a song
	Identify new structures, vocabulary and functions
Speaking	Ask and answer
	Involve in a rhyming game
	Expressing approval/disapproval
	Sing a song
Reading	Read a story related to the topic
	Guess the meaning of new words from context
	Guess information

Appendix A.1 Sample lessons from unit 13 and unit 14 taken from Hancock, M. (2005). *Fun with English*: *Teacher's Guide*- Grade 4.

	Discriminate rhyming words
Writing	Consolidate spelling strategies through writing
	Copy sentences in cursive
	Complete the journal
Topic	Nature
Structures	Present simple (R)
	good/bad to
Functions	Asking for and giving information
	Expressing opinion
	Respond to simple instructions
Vocabulary	look after, shade, cut down, world
Spelling	*feet, team, eat, teacher, bee, teeth, sheep, read, meat, beach, tree, sleep*
Resources/Materials	
	Pupil's Book, pages 12 and 13
	Workbook, pages 8 and 9
	Handwriting Book, page 46
	Cassette, Unit 13
	Wall chart: *Nature*
	Flash card of the world, or a globe

Revise the previous lesson

- Now ask pupils to say who needs trees and why. (e.g. *Animals need trees for their homes and for food. We need trees because they give us food.*
- They can refer to the wall chart: *Nature* if necessary.

Presentation

- Remind the pupils of what they discussed to end the last lesson. Ask what it is good to do to help the Earth be healthy (e.g. *plant a tree*). Write *good* to on the board.
- Now present *bad to*. Write this on the board and elicit ideas of what it is bad to do for the Earth (e.g. *waste water, put rubbish in the street*).

Pupil's Book, page 12

4 Listen and read

- Explain that they will now hear and read more about why we need trees. First, pupils describe the picture and guess what the text is about. Present *cut down*, and use the flash card or globe to present *world*.
- Play the tape. Pupils listen and read. See if they can work out the meaning of *look after* and *shade* from context.
- Pupils take it in turns to read sections of the text.
- Ask comprehension questions: *'**What is cut down every day?**' 'Trees' **Is it good or bad to cut down trees every day?**' 'It is bad.' '**Why do birds and animals need trees?**' 'For their homes.' '**Why can we stay cool under the trees?**' 'Because trees give shade from the sun.' '**What food do we have from trees?**' 'Fruit and nuts' '**Do we need to plant more trees?**' 'Yes, we do.' '**Do we need to look after trees?**' 'Yes, we do.' '**What helps the Earth to be a healthy place?**' 'Tall, strong trees'*

5 Study box

- Follow the usual procedure.
- In this activity, pupils choose one option from each colour set to make a correct question and answer. Do an example or two with the class first.
- If appropriate, when they are confident, pupils can introduce other vocabulary to make further questions and answers based on the given model.
- Make a note of any errors and go over these at the end.

Workbook, page 8

3 Order and write the story

- This is the first activity in a series of activities that will guide pupils towards writing their own story, which they will do in Unit 19.
- This activity guides them towards an understanding of the structure of a story. First, in pairs, they reorder the sentences into a coherent story.
- When they have finished, they look at the picture and choose a title that reflects the subject of the story.

Suggested answers:

Title: Plant more trees

Order: 1 e 2 c 3 d 4 b 5 a

Pupil's Book, page 13

6 Look and listen. Point and say

- Pupils look at the pictures and say what they can about them.
- Explain the task. You will play the tape. Pupils must match each sentence they hear with the corresponding picture on the page. Do the first one or two as examples first.
- Draw the pupils' attention to the different intonations used for statements of approval (*It's good to ...*) and disapproval (*It's bad to ...*). Pupils listen for the different intonations on the tape.
- Now ask the pupils to work in pairs. They take it in turns to point to a picture and say the appropriate corresponding sentence as in the speech bubbles.
- Go around and monitor their work. Make sure that they use the appropriate intonations.

Look and listen. Point and say text:

It's good to look after trees.
It's bad to hurt trees.
It's good to drink water.
It's bad to drink lots of fizzy drinks.
It's good to plant trees.
It's bad to cut down lots of trees.
It's good to eat healthy food.
It's bad to eat lots of cakes and sweets.

7 Song: Plant a tree

- Follow the normal procedure for songs.
- When the pupils have heard and practised the song in the usual way, ask them to listen to the song again and listen for words with the /i:/ sound (*tree, see, eat*). Repeat with the /el/ sound (*rain, shade, stay, day*).
- Direct the teacher to use the rhyming words (*sun, fun; strong, long*) from the song to initiate a chain game. E.g. begin with the word sun then go around the class saying a rhyming word: *fun, everyone, one, won, run,* etc. When they get stuck, they change to one of the other sound and begin another chain (*strong, long, wrong, belong,* etc.)

Workbook, page 9

5 Look and complete

- Read the words in the box and ask pupils to identify the vowel sound and the two spelling patterns (ee and ea). Then get pupils to read the words aloud.
- Next, pupils identify the pictures in pairs. They then complete the gapped words with the correct spelling of the vowel sound. Go round and monitor their work.
- Then go over their answers as a class. Get the pupils to say the words aloud.

Answers:

a	*feet*	*b*	*team*	*c*	*eat*
d	*teacher*	*e*	*bee*	*f*	*teeth*
g	*sheep*	*h*	*read*	*i*	*meat*
j	*beach*	*k*	*tree*	*l*	*sleep*

Handwriting Book, pages 46, 47

- Follow the usual procedure and make sure that the pupils pay attention to the punctuation and the double letters and form the 'ee' correctly.

Appendix A.1 Sample lessons from unit 13 and unit 14 taken from Hancock, M. (2005). *Fun with English*: *Teacher's Guide*- Grade 4.

Journal

- Remind the pupils to write their journal for this week.
- Take in their previous day's or week's work to mark.

LESSON FOUR

Objectives	
Writing	Start writing a story using the writing process
	Write down the subject of a story
Topic	Nature
Structures	Present simple (R)
Functions	Expressing opinion
	Respond to simple instructions
Resources/Materials	
	Story worksheet, page 192
Materials for optional project	
	Photocopiable page 189, OHT 2, a large plastic yoghurt pot; thin cane or sticks, about 200 cm long; plain paper; coloured green paper; scissors, glue and crayons.

Story worksheet, page 192

- Focus on the first story worksheet and explain that this is the first of six worksheets that will help the pupils write their own stories in Unit 19.
- Discuss what a story can be about – anything! The pictures on the worksheet, however, can act as prompts to get the pupils thinking about their stories. Discuss the pictures as a class.
- Ask the pupils to work in pairs to decide what their story is going to be about. It can be about the pictures on the worksheet, or anything else they have learnt about in their English lessons. Remind them, however, not to be too ambitious: they should not try and write about something that they do not know the English words for.
- Ask them to think of a name for their story. They can write this down.
- Have a brief class feedback session. Say you will do more on this in the next lesson.

Project: Plant or make a tree (optional)

- If it is possible, plant a tree in the school grounds. First, decide where is a good place for it. Then divide the class into groups, one to prepare the ground and dig a hole, one to take the tree to the hole and take it out of its container, one to put the tree in the hole and cover it, and one to water it. Encourage them to discuss the task in English, and give them simple English instructions.
- If this is not possible or practical, ask them to make a tree. Direct them to OHT 2. They will need a large plastic yoghurt pot, thin cane or sticks, about 200 cm long, plain paper, coloured green paper, scissors, glue and crayons.
- Divide the glass into four groups of about four. Give each group the following simple instructions, using photocopiable page 189 as a reference:
- Group one can put a hole in the bottom of the yoghurt pot, cover it in plain paper, and colour the paper in a nice pattern for the tree container.
- Group two can cut the green paper into branch shapes and attach it to the sticks, which will be the tree trunk.
- Group three can draw fruit and nuts on a piece of plain paper, about the size of a small coin. They can colour them in and cut them out.
- Group four can make a poster, with a picture of a tree on it and the caption *'Plant more trees!'*
- When all the groups have finished, they can help each other stick the fruit and nuts on the branches with glue or tape, and then put the trunk in the hole in the container. Finally they can stand the trees next to the poster.

End the lesson

- Praise the pupils' work. Tell them that in the next lesson they will be looking at a Nature Park. For homework, ask them to find out the English names for some animals and birds in Kuwait.

Appendix A.1 Sample lessons from unit 13 and unit 14 taken from Hancock, M. (2005). *Fun with English*: *Teacher's Guide*- Grade 4.

UNIT 14

THE NATURE PARK

LESSON ONE

Objectives	
Listening	Identify new structures, vocabulary and functions
	Identify different intonations
	Identify different vowel sounds in a listened-to material
Speaking	Describe pictures related to the topic
	Communicate approval/disapproval
Reading	Read a story related to the topic
	Guess the meaning of new words from context
	Guess information
Topic	Nature
Structures	*should/shouldn't*
	What does it look like?
Functions	Asking for and giving information
	Expressing approval and disapproval
	Giving and asking for advice
Vocabulary	beak, danger, frighten, nature, orange, quick, quickly, rare, safely, should, shouldn't
Spelling	*air, hair, where, bear*
Resources/Materials	
	Pupil's Book, pages 14 and 15
	Cassette, Unit 14
	Wall chart: *Nature*
	Pictures of animals being hunted

Opener

- Ask them to say as much as they can about the wall chart: *Nature*.

Vocabulary

beak, rare, quick, quickly, danger, safely

- Focus on the wall chart: *Nature*. Point to the bird and present *beak*. Explain *rare*: when there is not very much of something, it is *rare*. Ask check questions: ***'Are cats and dogs rare? Is this bird rare?'*** (Point to the wall chart.)
- Show the picture of the animals being hunted and present *danger* and *safely*. Say ***'The animals are in danger. They cannot live safely here.'***
- Now point to the animals in the wall chart and say, ***'These animals are not in danger. They can live safely here.'***
- Ask check questions: ***'Can we walk safely across a big road? Or are we in danger?'***
- Present *quick*. They know *fast*. Tell them it means the same. When we do something *fast*, we do it *quickly*.

Note:

- The words *should, frighten, orange* and Nature Park are also new. See if the pupils can work out their meaning through context.

Pupil's Book, pages 14 and 15

1 Listen and read

- Focus on the pictures. See if the pupils can guess what the passage is about and what Nature Park means. What can they say about the bird and what is happening?
- Write *Nature Park* on the board and ask the pupils to listen and find out what lives in one.
- Play the tape. Pupils listen. See if they can say what lives in the Nature Park.
- Play the tape again. Pupils listen and read.
- Point out the intonation of the word in italics. (You *are* clever.) This word is emphasised.
- Get the pupils to take it in turns to read parts of the story. Check that they use the correct intonation.
- Ask some comprehension questions to see if they understand the new words from context: ***'What is orange with a long beak?'*** *'The bird'* ***'Are there lots of these birds?'*** *'No, they are rare.'* ***'Should they make lots of noise?'*** *'No, they should come quietly.'* ***'Who should they phone?'*** *'The Nature Park'* ***'What can live safely in a Nature Park?'*** *'Animals, birds and plants'* ***'Why are the animals and birds lucky to live there?'*** *'Because there are lots of trees.'* ***'Who will be happy in the Nature Park'*** *'The rare bird'*

Pronunciation

- Model the words *rare* /rɛᵊ/ and *are* /a:/ for the pupils. Pupils repeat. Now ask them to listen to the tape again. They should put their right hand up when they hear the /ɛᵊ/ šound as in *rare*, and their left hand up when they hear the sound /a:/ as in *are*. Pause the tape after each word and get pupils to repeat it. (*are/garden/plant; rare/there*).

2 Read and answer

- Pupils ask and answer the questions in pairs.
- Go over their answers as a class.

Answers:

a *A pretty/ rare bird*
b *It's got an orange head and a long beak.*
c *Nasser*
d *It's a place for animals, birds and plants in danger.*
e *They eat fruit and nuts from the trees. They drink from the lake water.*

End the lesson

- At the end of the last lesson, pupils were asked to find the names of some animals and birds in English. Ask for these and put them on the board. Ask which ones are rare. See if pupils can say what they look like. Praise their efforts in using and developing their referencing abilities to find this information.

LESSON TWO

Objectives	
Listening	Identify new structures, vocabulary and functions
Speaking	Describe pictures related to the topic
	Ask and answer
Reading	Read a story related to the topic
	Guess the meaning of new words from context
Writing	Copy sentences in cursive
Topic	Nature
Structures	Present simple (R)
	should/shouldn't
Functions	Asking for and giving information
	Expressing approval
	Giving and asking for advice
Resources/Materials	
	Pupil's Book, pages 14 and 15
	Workbook, page 10
	Handwriting Book, page 48
	Cassette, Unit 14
	Wall chart: *Nature*
	Flashcards of *should* with a tick, and *shouldn't* with a cross
	coloured pencils or pens

Appendix A.1 Sample lessons from unit 13 and unit 14 taken from Hancock, M. (2005). *Fun with English*: *Teacher's Guide*- Grade 4.

Revise

Should

- Tell pupils to make sentences with *should* or *shouldn't*. Say a phrase, e.g. *'look when you cross a road'* and hold up the flashcard with *should*. Pupils say: *'You should look when you cross a road.'*
- Do the same with the *shouldn't* flashcard, e.g. *'frighten animals'*. Pupils say: *'You shouldn't frighten animals.'*
- Continue with other prompts, e.g. eat healthy food, eat too many sweets, see a doctor when you are ill, waste water, etc.

Revise the previous lesson

- Ask pupils to retell the story using the pictures. Play the tape again if necessary.
- Focus on the phrases with italics (*'You are clever!'*), and practise them with the correct intonation and stress. Make sure that the pupils use this intonation when they act the dialogue (see below).
- Elicit other terms of approval/disapproval they know (*That's very good! Well done! It's good/bad to ...*) and get them to practise saying them with the correct intonation.
- Divide the class into groups of four. Pupils act out the dialogue.

Pupil's Book, page 15

3 Match

- There are two parts to this activity. First, pupils quickly match the phrases with the pictures.
- Next, they make sentences with the phrases using *should* or *shouldn't*.
- Do the first one or two as an example.
- Pupils continue in pairs.

Answers:

You shouldn't touch it.
You shouldn't frighten it.
You should take a picture.
You should look after animals and birds.
You should phone the Nature Park.

Workbook, page 10

1 What does it look like ?

- Ask the pupils to colour this bird (a hoopoe). They must colour it according to the description written in the text next to the picture.
- When they have finished, they compare their bird with that of the pupil next to them. (They should have identical birds !) If not, pupils should help each other to find out who is right and who isn't by reading the description again carefully.
- Go around monitoring their coooperative work.

2 Colour, write and say

- Ask the pupils to colour the first bird using their imagination.
- When they have finished, ask them to fill in the gaps next to the parrot, based on what they have coloured.
- Now ask them to colour the second bird, a falcon.
- Tell them that now they will have to write longer sentences, similar to the ones they have just completed above.
- Ask some pupils to read out their answers to the class.
- Collect in their work for marking.

Handwriting Book, page 48

- Make sure that the pupils join the double *'t'* correctly.

End the lesson

- Ask the pupils if they have been to any Nature Parks. Do they know any in Kuwait, or have they seen any on television? What animals and plants did they see? Tell them that they will find out more about them in the next lesson.

LESSON THREE

Objectives

Listening	Identify new structures, vocabulary and functions
	Identify different intonations
	Develop sound spelling strategies
Speaking	Ask and answer
	Involve in a rhyming game
	Describe pictures related to the topic
	Retell events
Reading	Read a story related to the topic
	Guess the meaning of new words from the context
	Discriminate rhyming words
	Guess information
Writing	Use proper punctuation
	Copy sentences in cursive
	Consolidating spelling strategies through writing
	Complete the journal
Topic	Nature
Structures	*should/shouldn't*
	What does it look like?
	Past simple (R)
Functions	Asking for and giving information
	Giving and asking for advice
Vocabulary	kind, safe
Spelling	*name, plate, cake, plane, snake, arm, car, star, artist, jar*

Resources/Materials

Pupil's Book, pages 16 and 17
Workbook, pages 11 and 12
Handwriting Book, pages 49 and 50
Cassette, Unit 14
Wall chart: *Nature*
Pictures of different birds

Revise the previous lesson

- Focus on Exercise 3 of the Pupil's Book. Say a phrase from the box. Pupils make a sentence with *should* or *shouldn't*.

Pupil's Book, page 16

4 Listen and read

- Focus on the picture. Pupils describe what they can see.
- Now write the following question on the board: *Can the animals in the Park live safely?*
- Play the tape. Pupils listen. See if they can answer the question. (*Yes, they can make safe homes.*)
- Play the tape again. Pupils listen and read.
- Ask pupils if they have been to a place like this, or if they have heard of one. Ask them to tell you what it is like.
- Check that the pupils understand the new words *safe* and *be kind to* from the context. Ask a few comprehension questions: ***'Can they live safely in the park?'*** *'Yes, they can.'* ***'Are their homes safe?'*** *'Yes, they are.'* ***'Are the rare plants safe or in danger?'*** *'They are safe.'* ***'Should you be good to the animals, birds and plants?'*** *'Yes, you should.'* ***'What should you do when you see one?'*** *'You should be kind to it.'*
- Ask the pupils if they are kind to animals. Ask who else they are kind to, e.g. *brothers, sisters, friends*.

Pronunciation

- As in Lesson 1, say the words *rare* /rɛəʳ/ and *are* /a:/. Pupils repeat. Now ask them to listen to the tape again. They should put their right hand up when they hear the /ɛəʳ/ sound as in *rare*, and

Appendix A.1 Sample lessons from unit 13 and unit 14 taken from Hancock, M. (2005). *Fun with English*: *Teacher's Guide*- Grade 4.

their left hand up when they hear the /a:/ sound as in *are*. Pause the tape after each word and ask pupils to repeat. (*park/plant; rare/there*).

5 Study box

- Follow the usual procedure. Go around and monitor their work. Check that they are asking and answering with the correct intonation.

Workbook, page 11

3 Choose and complete

- Go over the first sentence as an example.
- Pupils choose the best word and write the sentences. They can compare their answers with a partner.
- Go over their answers as a class.

Answers:

The girl is short. She's got long hair. She's wearing a blue skirt. She's got black shoes. She's waving the Kuwaiti flag. She is happy.

Further practice

- Ask the pupils to describe the boy in the same way.

4 Ask a friend

- Explain that the pupils should talk about a visit to a Nature Park if they have been to one. If they have not, they can imagine visiting the one in the book.
- Divide the class into groups of two. They take it in turns to ask and answer questions.
- Pupils write their answers in the table.
- At the end, get a spokesperson for each group to retell what the other pupil has said.

Pupil's Book, page 17

6 Make sentences

- Pupils match the two halves to make sentences. They can do this individually or in pairs. Go over their answers as a class.

Answers:

a *The new Nature Park opened in March 2004.*
b *Rare plants can grow there safely.*
c *Birds can make safe homes in the trees.*
d *Animals can swim in the large lake.*
e *When you see a rare plant you should phone the Nature Park.*

Pronunciation

- Before pupils do Exercise 7, practise saying the expressions *What does it look like?* and *What does it look like?* .

7 Listen and point

- Focus on the pictures. Ask pupils to say what the birds look like.
- Play the tape. Pupils listen and point to the birds described in each picture.
- Play the tape again if necessary.

Listen and point text:

1 *It's got an orange head and its wings and tail are black and white. It's got a long beak.*
2 *It's white. It's got a black and white head and a short beak.*
3 *It's very pretty. It's got orange and black spotted wings.*
4 *It's very big. It's brown. It's got a sharp beak.*

Answers:

1 a 2 b
3 c 4 d

Workbook, page 12

5 Ask and answer. Complete with a or a_e.

- Read the questions in the speech bubble. Explain that to answer these questions, pupils first have to complete the words by identifying the pictures and spelling the words correctly.
- They can do this in pairs. Go round and help.
- Now go over their answers as a class. Get pupils to say the words aloud. Check they are clear about the spelling rule: short vowel sounds with a, and the long vowel sounds with a-e.

Answers:

On the plate: cake, plane, snake, name
In the jar: arm, car, star, artist

Handwriting Book, pages 49 and 50

- Make sure that the pupils join the *'a'* and the *'f'* correctly. Pay attention to the formation of the 'w', 'k' and 'q'. Make sure pupils punctuate correctly.

Journal

- Remind the pupils to write their journal for this week.
- Take in their previous day's or week's work to mark.

LESSON FOUR

Objectives

Writing Develop the ability of writing a story by choosing characters and assigning actions

Topic Nature

Resources/Materials

Story worksheet, page 193

Materials for optional project

Pictures in magazines of birds and animals, paper, scissors, glue and coloured crayons

Story worksheet, page 193

- Focus on the story worksheet and say that this week they will be planning what to write about the character in their story. Point out that there may be more than one character in the story, but usually there is one main one.
- Get them to describe the pictures and to discuss who they want in their story with a partner. It can be one of the characters in the pictures, or someone they think of.
- Get them to discuss and fill in the form. Go around and help them. Point out that there are no right or wrong answers, it is up to them. This is just to help them think in the right way.
- If you have time, discuss what they have put. Take in their work to mark at the end.

Project: A Nature Park frieze (optional)

- Tell the pupils that they are going to make a frieze of a Nature Park.
- Divide the class into small groups of four or five.
- Hand out magazines with pictures of animals and plants in if you have them. If you do not, pupils can draw their own animals and plants. Pupils

Appendix A.1 Sample lessons from unit 13 and unit 14 taken from Hancock, M. (2005). *Fun with English*: *Teacher's Guide*- Grade 4.

will also need a large sheet of paper, crayons, scissors and glue.

- Explain the task. Pupils are going to do a frieze of plants and animals in a safe place. Groups can plan where the animals live, e.g. with lots of trees, or by a river or lake, or in the desert. They can draw or cut out the animals and plants and position them in the Nature Park.
- They then write sentences explaining the rules for visiting the Nature Park, e.g. *You should not touch the animals. You should not frighten them. You should be kind to them.* etc.
- Display their friezes on the wall at the end. Encourage pupils to describe and discuss them with other groups.

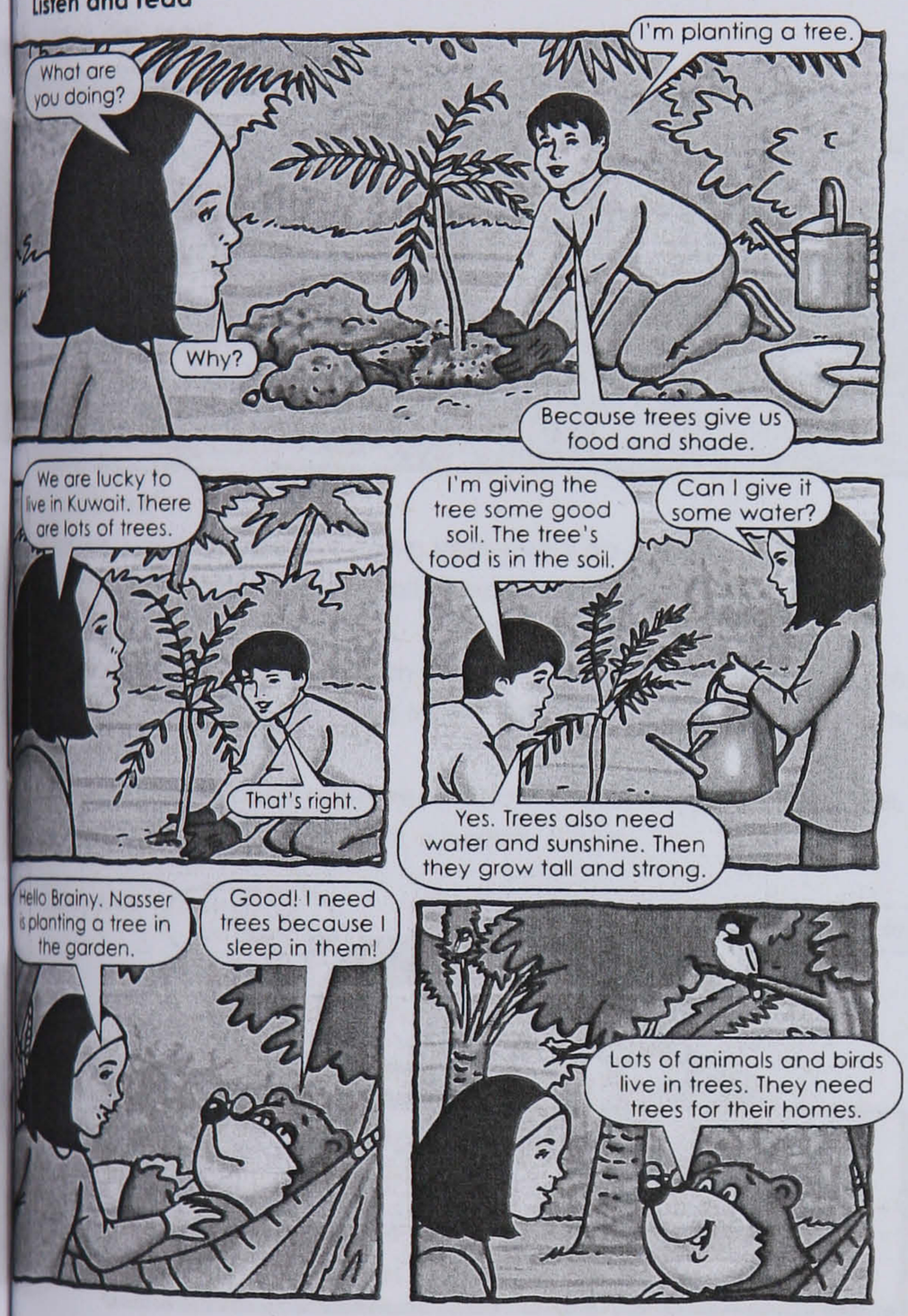
End the lesson

- Remind the pupils of the importance of nature, and the animals and plants that live in Kuwait. Encourage them to be proud of the place they live in.

Appendix A.2 Sample lessons from unit 13 and unit 14 taken from Superfine, W. (2005). *Fun with English: Pupil's Book*- Grade 4B.

13 I'm planting a tree

Listen and read



2 **Read and answer**

a What is Nasser doing?
b Why are Sara and Nasser lucky to live in Kuwait?
c Why does the tree need good soil, water and sunshine?
d Why do animals and birds need trees?
e What don't trees need?

3 **Look, choose and say**

... is/isn't strong.
... is/isn't healthy.
... is tall/short.
... is/isn't growing.
... is green/brown.
... has/hasn't got lots of water/sunshine.
... has got good/bad soil.

This tree ...

This tree ...

Appendix A.2 Sample lessons from unit 13 and unit 14 taken from Superfine, W. (2005). *Fun with English: Pupil's Book*- Grade 4B.

4 **Listen and read**

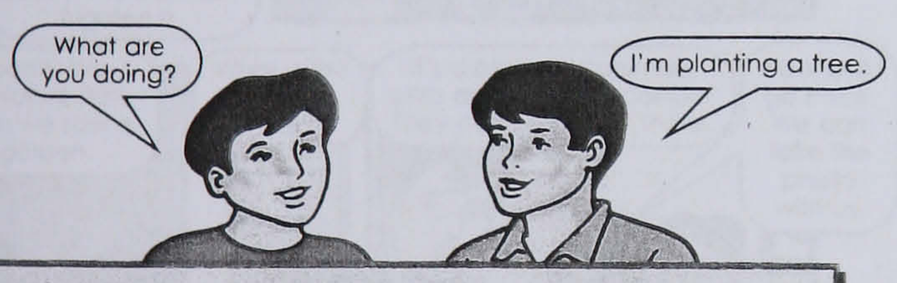
We need trees!

All over the world, people cut down trees every day. But it is bad to cut down lots of trees. Birds and animals need trees for their homes. People need trees too.

We need trees for shade from the sun. We can stay cool under trees when the sun is very hot. We need trees for food. We can eat the fruit and nuts from many trees.

So, we need to plant more trees. And we must look after them. Tall, strong trees help to make the Earth a healthy place.

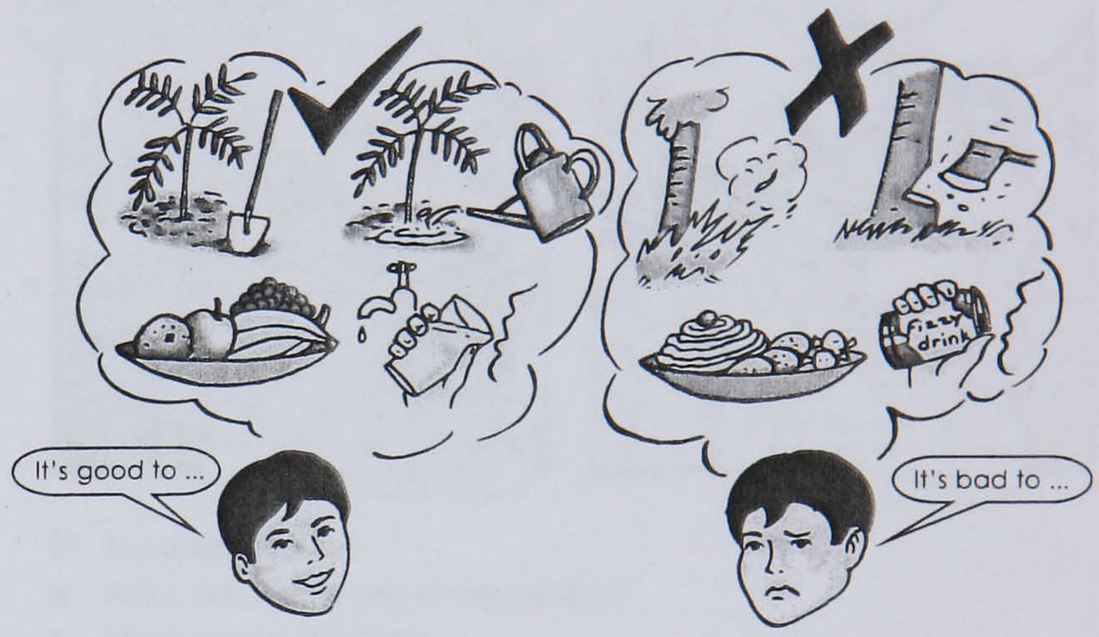
5 **Study box**



- What are you doing?/Where are you going?
  I'm planting a tree/going to my tree.
- Why do we/animals and birds need trees?
  We/They need trees for food/shade/homes.

Go to Workbook page 8

6 **Look and listen. Point and say**



7 **Plant a tree**

Plant a tree. Plant a tree
In soil and rain and sun.
Watch it grow up to the sky.
You can have some fun.

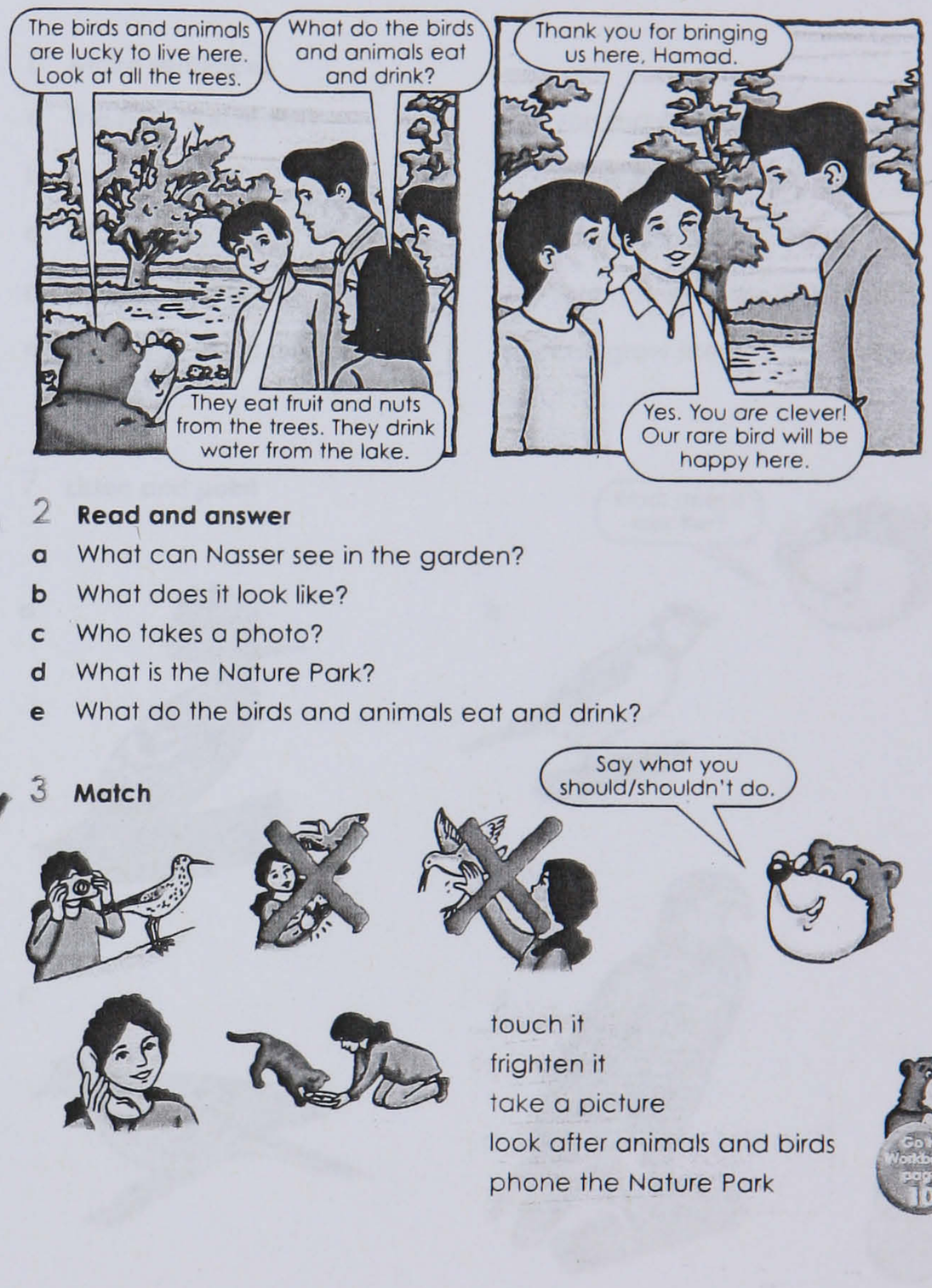
See the tree. See the tree
Growing tall and strong.
Sit in its shade to eat some fruit
And stay there all day long.

Go to Workbook page 9

Appendix A.2 Sample lessons from unit 13 and unit 14 taken from Superfine, W. (2005). *Fun with English: Pupil's Book*- Grade 4B.

14 The Nature Park

1 Listen and read



2 Read and answer

a What can Nasser see in the garden?
b What does it look like?
c Who takes a photo?
d What is the Nature Park?
e What do the birds and animals eat and drink?

3 Match

touch it
frighten it
take a picture
look after animals and birds
phone the Nature Park

Go to Workbook page 10

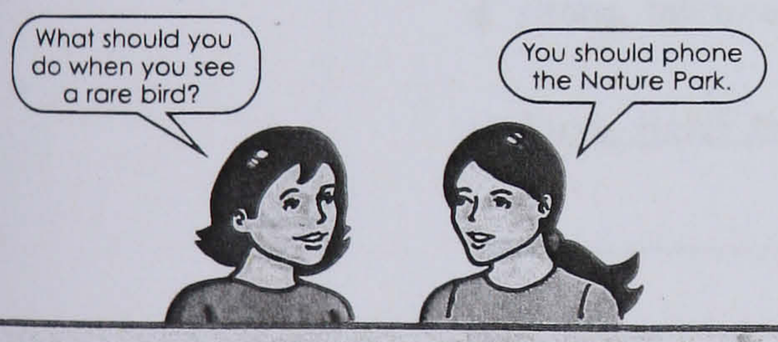
Appendix A.2 Sample lessons from unit 13 and unit 14 taken from Superfine, W. (2005). *Fun with English: Pupil's Book*- Grade 4B.

4 Listen and read

A new Nature Park opened in Kuwait in March 2004. Rare plants can grow safely there. Animals and birds in danger can also live in the Nature Park. They can make safe homes and find food in the trees. They can drink water from the large lake and swim there, too.

When you see a rare animal, bird or plant, you should be kind to it. You should phone the Nature Park and tell them about it.

5 Study box



- What should/shouldn't you do when you see a rare bird/animal/plant?
  You should take a photo/phone the Nature Park/be kind to it.
  You shouldn't frighten/touch it.

Go to Workbook page 11

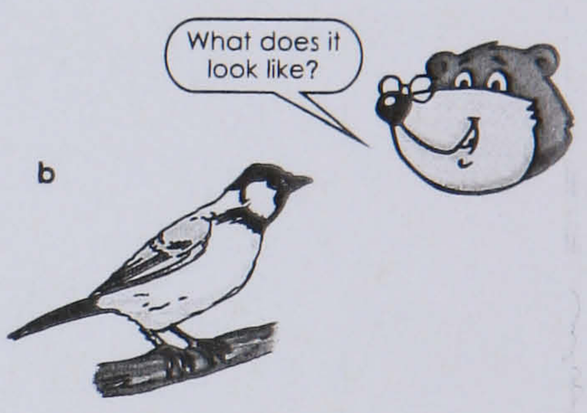
6 Make sentences

a	The new Nature Park	you should phone the Nature Park.
b	Rare plants	in the large lake.
c	Birds can make	opened in March 2004.
d	Animals can swim	safe homes in the trees.
e	When you see a rare plant	can grow there safely.

7 Listen and point

a

b



c

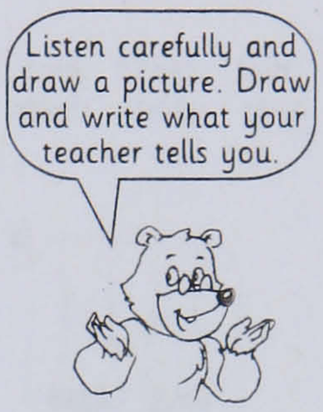
d

Go to Workbook page 12

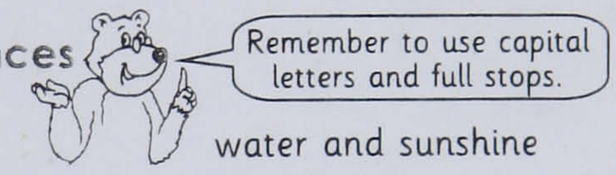
Appendix A.3 Sample lessons from unit 13 and unit 14 taken from Superfine, W. (2005). *Fun with English: Pupil's Work Book*- Grade 4B.

I'm planting a tree 13

1 Listen, draw, write



2 Make correct sentences



a	birds need trees	water and sunshine
b	we are lucky	for their homes
c	trees need good soil,	give us food and shade
d	strong, tall trees	to live in kuwait

a *Birds need trees* _____

b _____

c _____

d _____

7

Appendix A.3 Sample lessons from unit 13 and unit 14 taken from Superfine, W. (2005). *Fun with English: Pupil's Work Book*- Grade 4B.

Order and write the story

a "That's OK," said Brainy's dad. "You can plant a tree instead."

b "Sorry," said the man. "I didn't know."

c A man came to cut down the tree.

d "Stop!" said Brainy's dad. "Don't cut down my tree. I live here."

e One day, Brainy's dad was asleep in a tree.

1 e 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ 5 ___

Choose a title

Brainy's tree We all live in trees Plant more trees

_____

One day, _____

_____

_____

_____

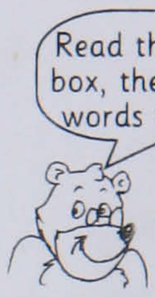
_____

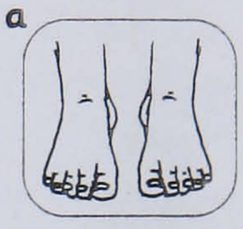
_____

_____

4 Look and complete

read tree beach feet meat teeth
bee teach sheep team eat sleep



a 
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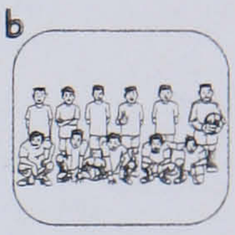
b 
t__m

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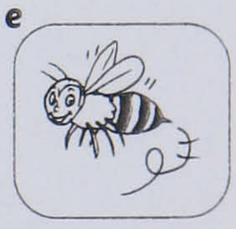
__t

d 

t__cher

e 
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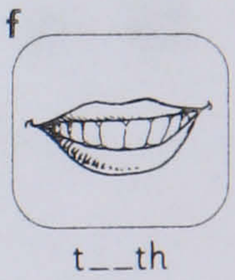
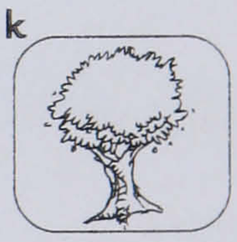
f 
t__th

g 
sh__p

h 
r__d

i 
m__t

j 
b__ch

k 
tr__

l 
sl__p

Appendix A.3 Sample lessons from unit 13 and unit 14 taken from Superfine, W. (2005). *Fun with English: Pupil's Work Book*- Grade 4B.

14 The Nature Park

1 What does it look like?

Read, then colour this bird.

This rare bird is very pretty.
It's got a yellow head and an orange beak.
Its wings are striped black and white.
It's got a yellow tail.

2 Colour, write and say

This is a parrot. It's very _____.
It's got a _____ head and a _____ beak.
Its wings are _____.
It's got a _____ tail.

This is a falcon. It's a beautiful bird.
It's got a _____ and a _____.
Its _____ _____.
It's got _____.

3 Choose and complete

a

This ~~boy~~/girl is short/tall. She's got short/long hair. She's wearing a skirt/hat. She's got white/black shoes. She's holding a large/small photo of a black/blue bird.

b

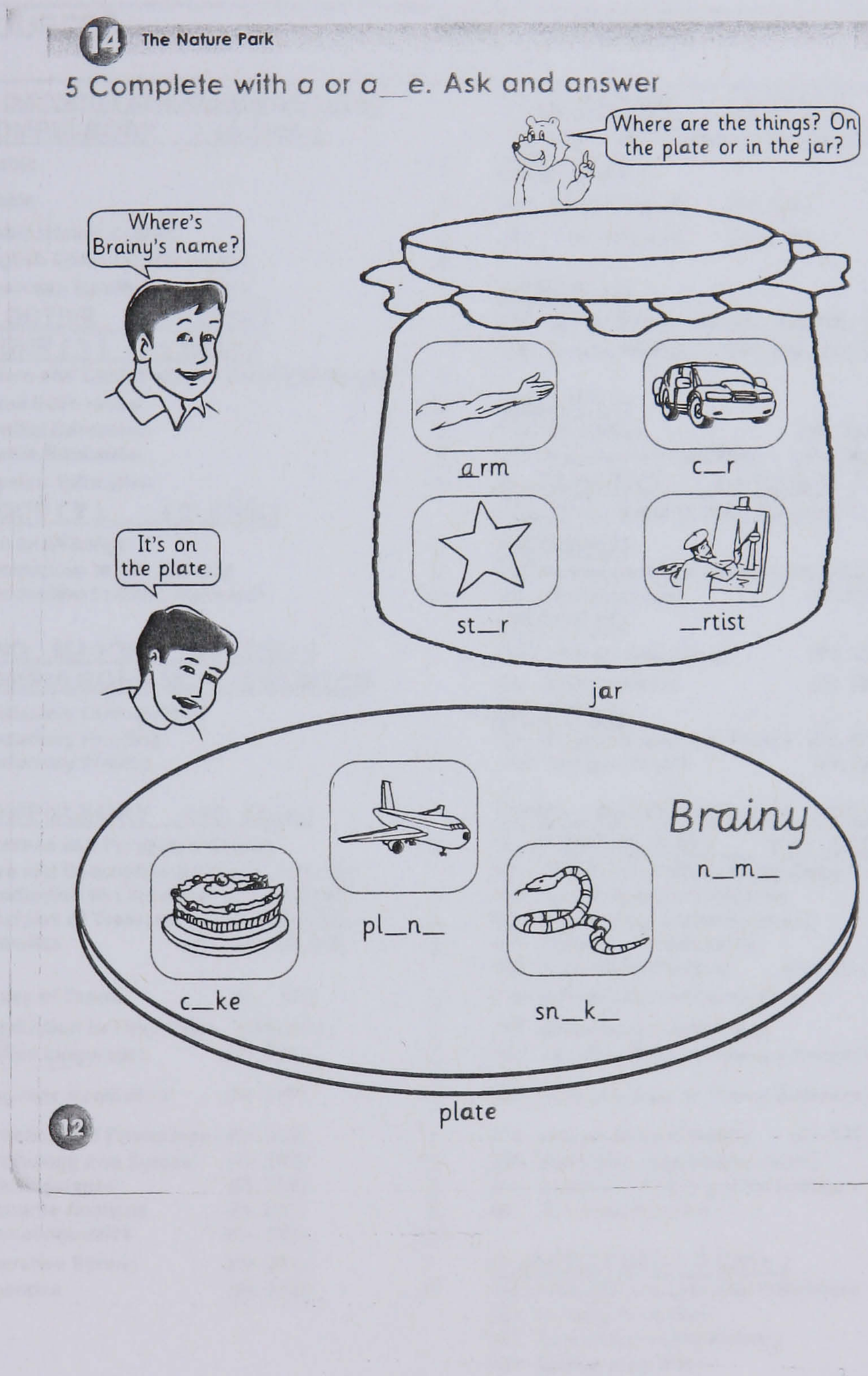
This boy is _____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

4 Ask a friend

Have you seen a rare bird, plant or animal?

What did you see?	
Where was it?	
What did it look like?	
Did you take a photo?	

Appendix A.3 Sample lessons from unit 13 and unit 14 taken from Superfine, W. (2005). *Fun with English: Pupil's Work Book*- Grade 4B.



Appendix A.4 Pre-service teacher Education programme for primary Education majors taken from Al-Mutawa, N. (1995). *The primary stage pre-service training programme for TEFL student-teachers.*

KUWAIT UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
1995 - 1996

3 - MAJOR SHEET
PRIMARY STAGE (ENGLISH LANGUAGE)

COURCES	Ctds
FIRST : UNIVERSITY REQUIREMENTS(24 Ctds)	
A - COMPULSORY (15 Ctds)	
101 Arabic	3
102 Arabic	3
102 Arabic Islamic Culture	3
105 English Conversation (Pr.05)	3
107 Freshman Reading (Pr.07)	3
B - ELECTIVE (9 Ctds)	
GROUP (1) (6 Ctds)	
100 Modern and Contemporary History of Kuwait	3
102 Home Economics	3
136 Familial Education	3
224 Islamic Education	3
244 Physical Education	3
GROUP (2) (3 Ctds)	
111 Man and Energy	3
111 Introduction to Life Science	3
135 Introduction to Educ. Research	3
SECOND : MAJOR (60 Ctds)	
A - COMPULSORY NON - CREDITED	
05 Introductory Conversation	-
07 Introductory Reading	-
08 Introductory Writing	-
B - COMPULSORY (45 Ctds)	
108 Sentence and Paragraph Styling (Narrative and Descriptive Writing) (Pr. 08)	3
170 Introduction to Literature (Pr. 05,07,08)	3
180 Principles of Translation (Pr. 05,07,08)	3
206 Dramatics (Pr. 105,107,108)	3
213 Survey of Drama (Pr. 170)	3
223 Introduction to Linguistics (105,107)	3
227 Applied Linguistics (Pr. 223)	3
228 Language Acquisition (Pr. 223)	3
243 Phonetics and Phonology (Pr. 223)	3
262 Morphology and Syntax (Pr. 243)	3
327 Sociolinguistics (Pr. 227)	3
328 Discourse Analysis (Pr. 227)	3
329 Psycholinguistics (Pr. 227)	3
363 Generative Syntax (Pr. 262)	3
460 Semantics (Pr. 363)	3

COURSES	Ctds
C - ELECTIVE (9 Ctds)	
Students Select 3 credits from each group	
GROUP (1)	
280 Translation (1) (Pr. 180)	3
281 Translation (2) (Pr. 280)	3
GROUP (2)	
205 Group Discussion (Pr. 105.107, 108)	3
209 Report Writing (Pr. 105, 107, 108)	3
GROUP (3)	
343 Phonetics (Pr. 243)	3
347 Generative Phonology (Pr. 243)	3
D - ELECTIVE (6 Ctds)	
Students Select one Group	
GROUP (1)	3
314 Shakespeare and His Age (Pr.170,213)	3
414 Modern Drama (Pr. 314)	3
GROUP (2)	
334 19th Century Novel (Pr. 170)	3
434 Modern Novel (Pr. 334)	3
GROUP (3)	
354 Romantic and Vict. Poetry (Pr. 170)	3
450 Modern Poetry (Pr. 354)	3
THIRD : PROFESSIONAL (45 Ctds)	
A - COMPULSORY (42 Ctds)	
131 Principles of Educ. Psychology	3
222 Foundations of Education	3
231 Psychology of Development	3
235 Computer in Education	3
338 Child Mental Hygine (Pr. 231)	3
338 Primary School Curriculum	3
352 Educational Technology	3
366 Teaching Eng. to Young Learners (1)	3
367 Teaching Eng. to Young Learners (2)	3
413 School Administration (Pr. 222)	3
431 Evaluation and Measurement	3
446 Seminar = Eng.to young Learners	2
447 Teaching Practice	10
B - ELECTIVE (3 Ctds)	
225 Libraries and Learning Resources	3
326 Primary Education	3
327 School Activities/ Primary	3
439 Special Education	3

NUMBER OF CREDITS REQUIRED FOR GRADUATION = 132

Appendix A.5 Pre-service teacher Education programme for secondary Education majors taken from Kuwait University College of Education.

218 College of Education

Graduation Requirements for Undergraduates

Programme: Intermediate and Secondary
Specialisation: English Language

Courses		Credits
First:	University Requirements	(24 credits)
Compulsory		(15 credits)
101	Arabic	3
102	Arabic	3
102	Islamic Arabic Civilisation	3
105	English Conversation (Prereq. 05)	3
107	Text Reading (Prereq. 07)	3
Electives	(9 credits)	
(Group 1)	(3 credits)	
100	Modern & Contemporary History of Kuwait	3
104	Principles of Economics	3
135	Introduction to Educational Research	3
136	Family Education	3
(Group 2)	(6 credits)	
111	Introduction to Life & Nature Sciences	3
111	Man & Energy	3
111	Earth & Universe	3
112	Human Biology	3
246	Concepts of Modern Mathematics	3
Second: Major Requirement		(63 credits)
Compulsory Introductory Courses		(9 Non-Credit Courses)
05	Introductory Conversation	
07	Introductory Reading	
08	Introductory Writing	
Compulsory		(45 credits)
108	Principles of Sentence & Paragraph Writing	3
170	Introduction to Literature	3
180	Principles of Translation	3
223	Introduction to Linguistics	3
227	Applied Linguistics	3
228	Language Acquisition	3
234	Survey of Fiction	3
243	Phonetics & Phonology	3
262	Morphology & Syntax	3
280	Translation (1)	3
309	Research Writing in Linguistics	3
328	Discourse Analysis	3
363	Generative Syntax	3
381	Translation (3)	3
369	Semantics	3
Electives		(12 credits)

Appendix A.5 Pre-service teacher Education programme for secondary Education majors taken from Kuwait University College of Education.

Student selects one course (3 credits) from each of following groups:

(Group 1)		
205	Advanced Conversation	3
206	Dramatics	3
(Group 2)		
208	Essay Writing	3
209	Report Writing	3
(Group 3)		
327	Socio-linguistics	3
329	Psycholinguistics	3
(Group 4)		
421	Lexicography	3
422	Text Linguistics	3
Student selects one group of following:		(6 credits)
(Group 1)		
314	Shakespeare & His Age	3
213	Survey of Drama	3
(Group 2)		
334	19th Century Novel	3
434	Modern Novel	3
(Group 3)		
354	Romantic & Victorian Poetry	3
254	Survey of Poetry	3
Third:	Vocational Preparation	(45 credits)
222	Foundations of Education	3
235	Computer in Education	3
331	Educational Psychology	3
332	Psychological Health	3
357	Curriculum	3
358	Media & Educational Technology	3
362	Teaching English (1)	3
372	Teaching English (2)	3
413	School Administration	3
421	Development of Educational Thought	3
431	Evaluation & Measurement	3
465	Field Training	2
482	Seminar	10

(Total Credits for Graduation -- 132)

Appendix A.6 A list of courses for English and Literature majors taken from Kuwait University English & Literature Department.

Department of English
Major Sheet 2000 – 2001

Courses	Credits
FIRST: University Requirements (30 Credits 10 Courses)	
A. Compulsory (18 Credits – 6 Courses)	
101 Arabic	3
102 Arabic	3
102 Arabic Islamic Culture	3
105 English Conversation (Aptitude test for Dept. & Edu)	3
107 Freshman Reading (" ")	3
108 Sentence & Paragraph Styling (Narrative & Descriptive Writing) (Aptitude test for Dept. & Edu)	3
B. Elective (12 Credits 4 Courses)	
100 Modern and Contemporary History of Kuwait (Compulsory for Faculty of Students)	3
101 Methods of Scientific Research	3
101 Man and Environment	3
101 Introduction to Sociology	3
101 Introduction to Psychology	3
102 Introduction to Logic	3
103 Principles of Philosophy	3
180 Principles of Translation (Dept. Requirement) (Aptitude test for Dept. & Edu)	3
SECOND : MAJOR (48 Credits 16 Courses)	
A. Compulsory (30 Credits 10 Courses) Students should take the following 5 Literature and 5 Linguistic Courses	
170 Introduction to Literature (105,107,108 Dept. & Edu.)	3
213 Survey of Drama (170 Dept. & Edu)	
234 Survey of Fiction (" " " ")	3
254 Survey of Poetry (" " " ")	3
374 Survey of Criticism (213, 234, 254)	3
223 Introduction to Linguistics (105, 107, 108 Dept. & Edu)	3
243 Phonetics & Phonology (223 Dept. & Edu)	3
262 Morphology & Syntax (223 Dept. & Edu)	3
363 Generative Syntax (262 Dept. & Edu)	3
369 Semantics (363 Dept. & Edu)	3
B. Electives (18 Credit = 6 Courses)	
5 Literature Courses (Literature Concentration Students)	
5 Linguistics Courses (Linguistics Concentration Students)	
1 Skills Course (for all students)	
Literature Concentration: Student chooses one course from each group.	
Group I: (Preq. 234 Dept. &Edu)	
334 Nineteenth-Century Novel	3
336 Major Themes in Nineteenth-Century Novel	3
Group II: (Preq. 254 Dept. & Edu)	
354 Romantic and Victorian Poetry	3
Or	
356 Major Themes in Romantic and Victorian Poetry	3
Group III: (Preq. 314 or 316 Dept.)	
414 Modern Drama (314 for Edu)	3
Or	
415 Major Themes in Modern Drama	3
Group IV: (Preq. 334 or 336 Dept. & Edu)	
434 Modern Novel	3
Or	
435 Major Themes in Modern Novel	3
Group V : (Preq. 354 or 356)	
450 Modern Poetry	3
Or	
455 Modern Themes in Modern Poetry	3
Linguistics Concentration	
Group I : (Preq. 223 Dept. & Edu) Students choose one course	
227 Applied Linguistics	3
Or	
228 : Linguistics Acquisition	3
Group II: (Prereq. [(262) + (227 or 228) Dept. & Edu]	
Students choose two courses:	
327 Sociolinguistics	3
328 Discourse Analysis	3
329 Psycholinguistics	3
397 Computational Linguistics	3
Group III: Students choose two courses:	
343 Phonetics (Prereq. 243 Dept. & Edu)	3
347Generative Phonology (" " ")	3
349Historical Linguistics (prereq. 262 Dept.)	3
399 Logic and Linguistics (" " ")	3

Courses	Credits
Skills Course: All students select one course from each of the following Group	3
Group I: (105 for Dept. & Edu.)	
205 Groups Discussion	
Or	
206 Dramatics	3
Groups II: (108 for Dept. & Edu.)	
208 Essay Writing	3
Or	
209 Report Writing	3
Free Choice: Students select two courses from University Offerings:	

Appendix A.7 Teachers consent form for the classroom observation and interview.

Consent Form

I agree to be observed twice and interviewed once by the researcher and

for classroom observations and interviews to be tape-recorded.

Teacher's signature

Appendix A.8 COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) Observation Scheme Part (A) taken from Spada, N. & Frohlich, M. (1995). *Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) Observation Scheme*: *Coding Conventions & Applications*.

COLT PART A

Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme

School ..... Grade(s) ..... Observer .....

Teacher ..... Lesson (min.) ..... Visit No .....

Subject ..... Date ..... Page .....

ME	ACTIVITIES & EPISODES	PARTICIPANT ORGANISATION							CONTENT								CONTENT CONTROL			STUDENT MODALITY					MATERIALS							
		Class			Group		Indiv.		Manag.		Language				Other topics										Type				Source			
																									Text						
		T↔S/C	S↔S/C	Choral	Same task	Different tasks	Same task	Different tasks	Procedure	Discipline	Form	Function	Discourse	Sociolinguistic.	Narrow	Broad	Teacher/Text	Teacher/Text/Stud.	Student	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Other	Minimal	Extended	Audio	Visual	L2-NNS	L2-NS	L2-NSA	Student-made
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33

Appendix A.9 Lesson transcript Teacher (12) Lesson 2:

The teacher starts to greet her pupils:
T: How are you girls today?
Pupils: …are fine thank you.

8.25 the teacher starts to revise the days of the week.
T: What day is today?
Pupils: Today is Wednesday. (in Choral twice)
T: What was yesterday?
Pupils: yesterday was Tuesday. (in Choral twice)
T: And tomorrow will be….
A pupil: Thursday
T: Thursday. Very good.

8.26 Teacher writes date and lesson on board.
The teacher tells her pupils that they are going to play a language game called 'hangman'. The teacher reminds pupils how to play the game. Then she provides the first and last letters for them:
T: try to guess the other letters.
A pupil: (e)
T: No, No.
A pupil: (t)
T: Yes (t) very good.
The game continues until pupils figure out the word (i.e. strong). Then the teacher introduces another word.

8.31 The teacher tells pupils that they will start the new lesson now. The teacher starts asking questions to revise previous textbook content.
T: What do plants need to grow strong?
A pupil: water
T: Water. Very good.
The teacher writes it on the board. And keeps asking for other things such as sun and soil and writes them on the board. Then she asks:
T: What do we need to grow strong? What do we need to grow strong?
A pupil: xxx
T: We need exercises. Very good. What else?
A pupil: Fruit.
T: Fruit. Very good.
Then the teacher asks:
T: Why do animals need trees?
A pupil: because they are [their] homes.
T: Very good. They need them for their homes.

8.33 The teacher introduces new vocabulary using flash cards and picture cards.
T: This man is cutting down the trees. Cutting down the trees. Cutting down the trees. Cut down
Pupils: Cut down (in choral).
T: Cut down.
Pupils: Cut down (in choral).
The teacher moves around the classroom asking individual pupils to read the flashcard. The teacher then asks pupils to provide an L1 translation for the word. The teacher goes on introducing the rest of the vocabulary in the same way using examples, picture and flashcards. Pupils repeat in choral and

individually, and provide an L1 translation of the words, and then the teacher repeats the L1 translation of the new words.

8.39 The teacher asks pupils to write down the new vocabulary in their note books.

8.42 The teacher instructs pupils to stop writing and she reads the words from the board and asks pupils to repeat the words after her in choral.

8.43 The teacher asks pupils to open their Pupils' Book page 12. She moves around and checks.

8.44 T: We will listen to a story. Ok? We will listen to the tape. Where is your finger?

The teacher plays the tape. Pupils listen and follow in their books.

8.46 T: We will listen to the lesson again. We will listen again. Ok? Listen carefully because I will ask you some questions.

Then the teacher is busy writing questions on the board while pupils are listening and following in their books.

8.47 T: Ok. I'll ask you some questions. What is cut down every day?

A pupil: Trees

T: Trees. Very good.

The teacher continues asking all the questions and pupils answer with a word and the teacher responds with (very good) or (excellent).

8.49 T: Now. Let's read. Who can read the first two sentences?

A pupil reads with errors and the teacher corrects her.

A pupil: xxx

T: All

A pupil: All

T: [every]

T: Over

A pupil: it is ….

T: bad

Sometimes the teacher provides the word for the pupil to save time. The teacher asks other pupils to read.

8.54 T: Ok. Let's do the study box questions. I will write some questions on the board. Who can read the first question?

A pupil: Why do …

T: We…

A Pupil: we [not]…

T: need…

A pupil: trees?

T: Why do we need trees? We need trees for….

A pupil: to grow strong.

The teacher repeats the question and translates it in L1 to make sure pupils understood. Another pupil gives the right answer:

A pupil: xxx shade from the sun

T: very good. We need trees for shade.

The teacher writes the answer on the board. She continues asking other questions and pupils answer then she writes the answers on the board.

8.58 The teacher asks pupils to write down the questions in their note books.

9.05 The bell rings and the lesson ends.

For every one of the activities above I would check the relevant category in the COLT Observation Sheet and count the time. Because the COLT Sheet is too big to be included, I will try to show how the coding was conducted. Under Participant Organization, for example, there is more than one subcategory and I would check the relevant one depending on the activity observed:

Time	Activity	Participant Organization	Content	Content Control	Student Modality	Time spent on activity
8.25	The teacher revises days of the week	T—S/C	Form	Teacher/Text	Combination with speaking	1 m.
8.26	The teacher plays a language game to revise previous vocabulary	T—S/C	Form	Teacher/Text	Combination with speaking	5 m.
8.31	The teacher asks questions to revise previous content	T—S/C	Set book questions	Teacher/Text	Combination with speaking	2 m.
8.33	The teacher introduces new vocabulary	T—S/C	Form	Teacher/Text	Combination with speaking	6 m.

pendix A.10 Classroom observation raw data, the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test for negative and itive ranks, the Kruskal Wallis Test and the Mann-Whitney Test for Education and experience isions.

Participant Organization

First : Education Background

|- Data

Table 1 Time in minutes by teachers with Education Background

	TSC	SSC	CHORAL	GROUP	INDIVIDUAL
1	30	4	6	0	0
2	32	6	2	0	0
3	30	5	4	0	0
4	26	13	2	0	0
5	32	1	1	0	6
6	32	3	5	0	0
7	30	5	4	0	1
8	27	12	0	0	0
9	20	8	7	0	5
10	13	12	5	6	4
11	25	6	6	3	0
12	27	4	8	1	0
13	16	17	6	0	1
14	16	14	4	3	3
15	26	4	8	0	2

I-Teachers with Education Background

Table 2 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
SSC - TSC	Negative Ranks	14	8.43	118.00
	Positive Ranks	1	2.00	2.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
CHORAL - TSC	Negative Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
GROUP - TSC	Negative Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
INDIVIDUAL - TSC	Negative Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		

Table 3 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
CHORAL - SSC	Negative Ranks	10	7.70	77.00
	Positive Ranks	4	7.00	28.00
	Ties	1		
	Total	15		
GROUP - SSC	Negative Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
INDIVIDUAL - SSC	Negative Ranks	14	8.07	113.00
	Positive Ranks	1	7.00	7.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
GROUP - CHORAL	Negative Ranks	14	8.32	116.50
	Positive Ranks	1	3.50	3.50
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
INDIVIDUAL - CHORAL	Negative Ranks	14	7.93	111.00
	Positive Ranks	1	9.00	9.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
INDIVIDUAL - GROUP	Negative Ranks	4	4.38	17.50
	Positive Ranks	5	5.50	27.50
	Ties	6		
	Total	15		

Teachers With NO Education Background

1- Data

Table 4 Time in minutes by teachers with no Education Background

	TSC	SSC	CHORAL	GROUP	INDIVIDUAL
1	30	6	4	0	0
2	25	14	1	0	0
3	17	15	6	0	2
4	21	9	1	0	9
5	24	13	1	2	0
6	22	13	3	0	2
7	35	0	4	0	1
8	25	6	2	8	0

a.

2-Output

Table 5 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
SSC - TSC	Negative Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
CHORAL - TSC	Negative Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
GROUP - TSC	Negative Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
INDIVIDUAL - TSC	Negative Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		

Table 6 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
CHORAL - SSC	Negative Ranks	7	4.86	34.00
	Positive Ranks	1	2.00	2.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
GROUP - SSC	Negative Ranks	6	4.50	27.00
	Positive Ranks	1	1.00	1.00
	Ties	1		
	Total	8		
INDIVIDUAL - SSC	Negative Ranks	6	5.50	33.00
	Positive Ranks	2	1.50	3.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
GROUP - CHORAL	Negative Ranks	6	4.25	25.50
	Positive Ranks	2	5.25	10.50
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
INDIVIDUAL - CHORAL	Negative Ranks	7	4.00	28.00
	Positive Ranks	1	8.00	8.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
INDIVIDUAL - GROUP	Negative Ranks	2	4.25	8.50
	Positive Ranks	4	3.13	12.50
	Ties	2		
	Total	8		

cond : Experience Background

Teachers With Most Experience Background

I-Data

Table 7 Time in minutes by teachers with most experience

	TSC	SSC	CHORAL	GROUP	INDIVIDUAL
1	30	4	6	0	0
2	30	6	4	0	0
3	32	6	2	0	0
4	30	5	4	0	0
5	26	13	2	0	0

Table 8 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
SSC - TSC	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
CHORAL - TSC	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
GROUP - TSC	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
INDIVIDUAL - TSC	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		

Table 9 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
CHORAL - SSC	Negative Ranks	4	3.13	12.50
	Positive Ranks	1	2.50	2.50
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
GROUP - SSC	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
INDIVIDUAL - SSC	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
GROUP - CHORAL	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
INDIVIDUAL - CHORAL	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
INDIVIDUAL - GROUP	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	5		
	Total	5		

2-Teachers with Medium Experience Background

1- Data

Table 10 Time in minutes by teachers with medium experience

	TSC	SSC	CHORAL	GROUP	INDIVIDUAL
1	32	1	1	0	6
2	25	14	1	0	0
3	17	15	6	0	2
4	32	3	5	0	0
5	30	5	4	0	1

2-Output

Table 11 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
SSC - TSC	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
CHORAL - TSC	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
GROUP- TSC	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
INDIVIDUAL - TSC	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		

Table 12 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
CHORAL - SSC	Negative Ranks	3	2.67	8.00
	Positive Ranks	1	2.00	2.00
	Ties	1		
	Total	5		
GROUP - SSC	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
INDIVIDUAL - SSC	Negative Ranks	4	3.00	12.00
	Positive Ranks	1	3.00	3.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
GROUP - CHORAL	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
INDIVIDUAL - CHORAL	Negative Ranks	4	2.75	11.00
	Positive Ranks	1	4.00	4.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
INDIVIDUAL - GROUP	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	3	2.00	6.00
	Ties	2		
	Total	5		

3-Teachers with Least Experience Background

1-Data

Table 13 Time in minutes by teachers with least experience

	TSC	SSC	CHORAL	GROUP/Pair	INDIVIDUAL
1	27	12	0	0	0
2	20	8	7	0	5
3	21	9	1	0	9
4	24	13	1	2	0
5	22	13	3	0	2
6	13	12	5	6	4
7	25	6	6	3	0
8	27	4	8	1	0
9	16	14	6	0	1
10	16	14	4	3	3
11	26	4	8	0	2
12	35	0	4	0	1
13	25	6	2	8	0

Table 14 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
SSC - TSC	Negative Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
CHORAL - TSC	Negative Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
GROUP - TSC	Negative Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
INDIVIDUAL - TSC	Negative Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		

Table 15 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
CHORAL - SSC	Negative Ranks	10	7.75	77.50
	Positive Ranks	3	4.50	13.50
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
GROUP - SSC	Negative Ranks	11	7.00	77.00
	Positive Ranks	1	1.00	1.00
	Ties	1		
	Total	13		
INDIVIDUAL - SSC	Negative Ranks	11	8.00	88.00
	Positive Ranks	2	1.50	3.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
GROUP - CHORAL	Negative Ranks	10	7.30	73.00
	Positive Ranks	3	6.00	18.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
INDIVIDUAL - CHORAL	Negative Ranks	12	6.54	78.50
	Positive Ranks	1	12.50	12.50
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
INDIVIDUAL - GROUP	Negative Ranks	6	6.50	39.00
	Positive Ranks	6	6.50	39.00
	Ties	1		
	Total	13		

Table 16 Kruskal Wallis Test

	Experience	N	Mean Rank
TSC	Most Experienced	5	17.60
	Medium Experienced	5	14.30
	Least Experienced	13	8.96
	Total	23	
SSC	Most Experienced	5	10.40
	Medium Experienced	5	11.30
	Least Experienced	13	12.88
	Total	23	
CHORAL	Most Experienced	5	11.50
	Medium Experienced	5	10.90
	Least Experienced	13	12.62
	Total	23	
GROUP	Most Experienced	5	9.00
	Medium Experienced	5	9.00
	Least Experienced	13	14.31
	Total	23	
INDIVIDUAL	Most Experienced	5	6.50
	Medium Experienced	5	13.10
	Least Experienced	13	13.69
	Total	23	

CONTENT

First : Education Background

I-Teachers with Education background

I-Data

Table 17 Time in minutes by teachers with Education background

	Form	Function	Discourse	Listening/dialogue/text	singing	Reading silently	Oral presentation	Explaining procedure	Set book /compr ques.
1	25	1	0	6	1	0	0	0	8
2	27	4	0	1	2	0	0	0	7
3	30	1	0	4	0	0	0	0	4
4	22	0	0	10	0	0	3	0	4
5	31	1	0	1	0	0	0	2	6
6	26	1	0	9	0	0	0	0	5
7	24	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	12
8	16	0	10	5	0	0	0	2	13
9	24	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	11
10	30	0	0	3	0	0	2	0	5
11	31	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	7
12	28	1	0	4	0	0	0	0	7
13	32	0	0	2	0	0	3	0	3
14	23	0	0	2	0	0	5	0	10
15	28	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	6

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Table18 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Function - Form	Negative Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Discourse - Form	Negative Ranks	15	8.00	120 00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Listening/dialogue/text - Form	Negative Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
singing - Form	Negative Ranks	15	8 00	120.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Reading silently - Form	Negative Ranks	15	8.00	120 00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Oral presentation - Form	Negative Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Explaining procedure - Form	Negative Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		

- ---le 19 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Set book /compr. ques. - Discourse	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Set book /compr. ques. - Reading silently	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Listening/dialogue/text - Discourse	Negative Ranks	1	10.00	10 00
	Positive Ranks	14	7.86	110.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Listening/dialogue/text - Function	Negative Ranks	1	4.50	4.50
	Positive Ranks	13	7.73	100.50
	Ties	1		
	Total	15		
singing - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	14	8.50	119.00
	Positive Ranks	1	1.00	1.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Reading silently - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Oral presentation - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	13	8.35	108.50
	Positive Ranks	2	5.75	11.50
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Set book /compr. ques. - Explaining procedure	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Set book /compr. ques. - Function	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Set book /compr. ques. - singing	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Set book /compr. ques. - Oral presentation	Negative Ranks	0	.00	00
	Positive Ranks	14	7.50	105.00
	Ties	1		
	Total	15		
Set book /compr. ques. - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	4	5.50	22.00
	Positive Ranks	11	8.91	98.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		

-Data

Table 20 Time in minutes by teachers with no Education background

	Form	Function	Discourse	Listening/dialogue/text	singing	Reading silently	Oral presentation	Explaining procedure	Set book /compr ques
1	29	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	6
2	26	3	0	5	0	0	0	0	6
3	22	1	0	1	2	0	0	0	14
4	28	1	11	0	0	0	2	0	5
5	23	1	0	1	0	0	2	1	12
6	26	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	11
7	12	1	0	10	3	0	0	0	13
8	24	2	0	2	0	1	0	0	10

a.

2-Output

Table 21 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Function - Form	Negative Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Discourse - Form	Negative Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Listening/dialogue/text - Form	Negative Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
singing - Form	Negative Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Reading silently - Form	Negative Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Oral presentation - Form	Negative Ranks	8	4 50	36 00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Explaining procedure - Form	Negative Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Set book /compr. ques. - Form	Negative Ranks	7	5 00	35 00
	Positive Ranks	1	1.00	1 00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		

Table 22 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Set book /compr. ques. - Discourse	Negative Ranks	1	2.00	2.00
	Positive Ranks	7	4.86	34.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Set book /compr. ques. - Reading silently	Negative Ranks	0	.00	00
	Positive Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Listening/dialogue/text - Discourse	Negative Ranks	1	7.00	7.00
	Positive Ranks	6	3.50	21.00
	Ties	1		
	Total	8		
Listening/dialogue/text - Function	Negative Ranks	3	3.33	10.00
	Positive Ranks	3	3.67	11.00
	Ties	2		
	Total	8		
singing - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	5	4.40	22.00
	Positive Ranks	2	3.00	6.00
	Ties	1		
	Total	8		
Reading silently - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	6	3.50	21.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	2		
	Total	8		
Oral presentation - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	5	4.40	22.00
	Positive Ranks	2	3.00	6.00
	Ties	1		
	Total	8		
Set book /compr. ques. - Explaining procedure	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Set book /compr. ques. - Function	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Set book /compr. ques. - singing	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Set book /compr. ques. - Oral presentation	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Set book /compr. ques. - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		

Second : Experience Background

1-Teachers with Most Experience Background

1-Data

Table 23 Time in minutes by teachers with most experience background

	Form	Function	Discourse	Listening /dialogue /text	singing	Reading silently	Oral presentation	Explaining procedure	Set book /compr ques.
1	25	1	0	6	1	0	0	0	8
2	29	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	6
3	27	4	0	1	2	0	0	0	7
4	30	1	0	4	0	0	0	0	4
5	22	0	0	10	0	0	3	0	4

a.

Output

Table 24 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Function - Form	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Discourse - Form	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Listening/dialogue/text - Form	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
singing - Form	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Reading silently - Form	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Oral presentation - Form	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Explaining procedure - Form	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Set book /compr. ques. - Form	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0[x]		
	Total	5		

x.

Table 25 II-Wicoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Set book /compr. ques. - Function	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Listening/dialogue/text - Discourse	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Set book /compr. ques. - Discourse	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Reading silently - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Oral presentation - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Explaining procedure - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Set book /compr. ques. - Reading silently	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Set book /compr. ques. - singing	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Set book /compr. ques. - Oral presentation	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Set book /compr. ques. - Explaining procedure	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Set book /compr. ques. - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	2	3.00	6.00
	Positive Ranks	3	3.00	9.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		

1-Data

Table 26 Time in minutes by teachers with medium experience background

	Form	Function	Discourse	Listening/dialogue/text	singing	Reading silently	Oral presentation	Explaining procedure	Set book /compr ques
1	31	1	0	1	0	0	0	2	6
2	26	3	0	5	0	0	0	0	6
3	22	1	0	1	2	0	0	0	14
4	26	1	0	9	0	0	0	0	5
5	24	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	12

2- Output

Table 27 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Function - Form	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Discourse - Form	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Listening/dialogue/text - Form	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
singing - Form	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Reading silently - Form	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Oral presentation - Form	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Explaining procedure - Form	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Set book /compr. ques. - Form	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		

Table 28 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Set book /compr. ques. - Function	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Listening/dialogue/text - Discourse	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Set book /compr. ques. - Discourse	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Reading silently - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Oral presentation - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Explaining procedure - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	4	3.38	13.50
	Positive Ranks	1	1.50	1.50
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Set book /compr. ques. - Reading silently	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Set book /compr. ques. - singing	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Set book /compr. ques. - Oral presentation	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Set book /compr. ques. - Explaining procedure	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Set book /compr. ques. - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	1	2.00	2.00
	Positive Ranks	4	3.25	13.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		

Teachers with Least Experience Background

Table 29 Time in minutes by teachers with least experience background

	Form	Function	Discourse	Listening/dialogue/text	singing	Reading silently	Oral presentation	Explaining procedure	Set book /compr ques
1	16	0	4	5	0	0	0	2	13
2	24	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	11
3	28	1	4	0	0	0	2	0	5
4	23	1	0	1	0	0	2	1	12
5	26	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	11
6	30	0	0	3	1	0	2	0	5
7	31	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	7
8	28	1	0	4	0	0	0	0	7
9	32	0	0	2	0	0	3	0	3
10	23	0	0	2	0	0	5	0	10
11	28	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	6
12	12	1	0	10	3	1	0	0	13
13	24	2	0	2	0	3	0	0	10

a.

Output

Table 30 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Function - Form	Negative Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Discourse - Form	Negative Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Listening/dialogue/text - Form	Negative Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
singing - Form	Negative Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Reading silently - Form	Negative Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Oral presentation - Form	Negative Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Explaining procedure - Form	Negative Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Set book /compr. ques. - Form	Negative Ranks	12	7.50	90.00
	Positive Ranks	1	1.00	1.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		

Table 31 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Set book /compr. ques. - Function	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Listening/dialogue/text - Discourse	Negative Ranks	1	9.00	9.00
	Positive Ranks	11	6.27	69.00
	Ties	1		
	Total	13		
Set book /compr. ques. - Discourse	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Reading silently - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	10	6.40	64.00
	Positive Ranks	1	2.00	2.00
	Ties	2		
	Total	13		
Oral presentation - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	8	7.44	59.50
	Positive Ranks	4	4.63	18.50
	Ties	1		
	Total	13		
Explaining procedure - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	11	6.00	66.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	2		
	Total	13		
Set book /compr. ques. - Reading silently	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Set book /compr. ques. - singing	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Set book /compr. ques. - Oral presentation	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	12	6.50	78.00
	Ties	1		
	Total	13		
Set book /compr. ques. - Explaining procedure	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Set book /compr. ques. - Listening/dialogue/text	Negative Ranks	1	1.00	1.00
	Positive Ranks	12	7.50	90.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		

Table 32 The Kruskal-Wallis Test

	Experience	N	Mean Rank
Form	Most	5	13.20
	Medium	5	11.30
	Least	13	11.81
	Total	23	
Function	Most	5	16.60
	Medium	5	13.40
	Least	13	9.69
	Total	23	
Discourse	Most	5	11.00
	Medium	5	11.00
	Least	13	12.77
	Total	23	
Listening/dialogue/ text	Most	5	13.30
	Medium	5	12.00
	Least	13	11.50
	Total	23	
singing	Most	5	13.30
	Medium	5	11.60
	Least	13	11.65
	Total	23	
Reading silently	Most	5	11.00
	Medium	5	11.00
	Least	13	12.77
	Total	23	
Oral presentation	Most	5	11.50
	Medium	5	9.00
	Least	13	13.35
	Total	23	
Explaining procedure	Most	5	10.50
	Medium	5	13.00
	Least	13	12.19
	Total	23	
Set book /compr. ques.	Most	5	7.80
	Medium	5	13.00
	Least	13	13.23
	Total	23	

First : Education Background

1-Teachers with Education Background

1-Data

Table 33 Time in minutes by teachers with education background

	Teacher/ Text	Teacher/ Text/Student	Student
1	39	1	0
2	35	5	0
3	38	2	0
4	37	3	0
5	40	0	0
6	37	3	0
7	40	0	0
8	38	1	1
9	39	1	0
10	38	1	1
11	40	0	0
12	39	1	0
13	26	10	3
14	32	4	4
15	40	0	0

2-Output

Table 34 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Teacher/Text/ Student - Teacher/Text	Negative Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Student - Teacher/Text	Negative Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		

ble 35 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Student - Teacher/Text/Student	Negative Ranks	9	6.89	62.00
	Positive Ranks	2	2.00	4.00
	Ties	4		
	Total	15		

-Teachers with NO Education Background

]- Data

Table 36 Time in minutes by teachers with no education background

	Teacher/ Text	Teacher/ Text/Student	Student
1	37	3	0
2	38	2	0
3	39	1	0
4	37	1	2
5	38	0	2
6	37	3	0
7	39	1	0
8	34	6	0

a.

2- Output

Table 37 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Teacher/Text/ Student - Teacher/Text	Negative Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Student - Teacher/Text	Negative Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		

Table 38 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Student - Teacher/Text/Student	Negative Ranks	6	5.17	31.00
	Positive Ranks	2	2.50	5.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		

Table 39 The Mann-Whitney Test

	Education background	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Teacher/Text	With Education	15	13.23	198.50
	With No Education	8	9.69	77.50
	Total	23		
Teacher/Text/ Student	With Education	15	11.13	167.00
	With No Education	8	13.63	109.00
	Total	23		
Student	With Education	15	12.07	181.00
	With No Education	8	11.88	95.00
	Total	23		

Second : Experience Background

I-Teachers with Most Experience Background

I-Data

Table 40 Time in minutes by teachers with most experience background

	Teacher/ Text	Teacher/ Text/Student	Student
1	39	1	0
2	37	3	0
3	35	5	0
4	38	2	0
5	37	3	0

a.

Table 41 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Teacher/Text/ Student - Teacher/Text	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Student - Teacher/Text	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		

Table 42 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Student - Teacher/Text/Student	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		

Teachers with Medium Experience Background

Data

Table 43 Time in minutes by teachers with medium experience

	Teacher/ Text	Teacher/ Text/Student	Student
1	40	0	0
2	38	2	0
3	39	1	0
4	37	3	0
5	40	0	0

a.

Table 44 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Teacher/Text/ Student - Teacher/Text	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Student - Teacher/Text	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		

Table 45 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Student - Teacher/Text/Student	Negative Ranks	3	2.00	6.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	2		
	Total	5		

3- Teachers with Least Experience Background

1- Data

Table 46 Time in minutes by teachers with least experience background

	Teacher/ Text	Teacher/ Text/Student	Student
1	38	1	1
2	39	1	0
3	37	1	2
4	38	0	2
5	37	3	0
6	38	1	1
7	40	0	0
8	39	1	0
9	26	10	3
10	32	4	4
11	40	0	0
12	39	1	0
13	34	6	0

a.

Table 47 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Teacher/Text/ Student - Teacher/Text	Negative Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Student - Teacher/Text	Negative Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		

Table 48 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Student - Teacher/Text/Student	Negative Ranks	7	7.21	50.50
	Positive Ranks	4	3.88	15.50
	Ties	2		
	Total	13		

Table 49 The Kruskal-Wallis Test

	Experience	N	Mean Rank
Teacher/Text	Most	5	9.70
	Medium	5	15.50
	Least	13	11.54
	Total	23	
Teacher/Text/ Student	Most	5	15.60
	Medium	5	9.60
	Least	13	11.54
	Total	23	
Student	Most	5	9.00
	Medium	5	9.00
	Least	13	14.31
	Total	23	

'st : Education Background

Teachers with Education Background

Data

Table 50 Time in minutes by teachers with education background

	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Combination with Speaking	Other Combination
1	7	0	0	0	21	12
2	1	0	0	0	33	6
3	0	0	0	4	27	10
4	6	0	0	0	19	16
5	6	0	0	8	23	3
6	10	0	0	0	25	5
7	3	0	0	1	22	14
8	6	0	0	0	22	13
9	3	0	0	5	16	16
10	2	0	0	4	18	16
11	1	0	0	7	25	6
12	3	0	0	0	25	12
13	0	0	0	0	22	18
14	4	0	0	3	22	12
15	10	0	0	3	20	8

a.

Output

Table 51 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Combination with Speaking - Listening	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Combination with Speaking - Speaking	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Combination with Speaking - Reading	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Combination with Speaking - Writing	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Other Combination - Listening	Negative Ranks	3	2.50	7.50
	Positive Ranks	12	9.38	112.50
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Other Combination - Speaking	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Other Combination - Reading	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		
Other Combination - Writing	Negative Ranks	2	1.50	3.00
	Positive Ranks	13	9.00	117.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		

Table 52 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Other Combination - Combination with Speaking	Negative Ranks	15	8.00	120.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	15		

Teachers with NO Education Background

Data

Table 53 Time in minutes by teachers with no education background

	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Combination with Speaking	Other Combination
1	6	0	0	0	27	6
2	3	0	0	4	20	13
3	2	0	0	2	29	8
4	4	0	0	2	30	4
5	1	0	0	0	34	5
6	0	0	0	2	32	6
7	1	0	1	1	29	8
8	0	0	3	0	28	9

a.

2- Output

Table 54 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Combination with Speaking - Listening	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Combination with Speaking - Speaking	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Combination with Speaking - Reading	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Combination with Speaking - Writing	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Other Combination - Listening	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	7	4.00	28.00
	Ties	1		
	Total	8		
Other Combination - Speaking	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Other Combination - Reading	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		
Other Combination - Writing	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	8	4.50	36.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	8		

Table 55 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Other Combination - Combination with Speaking	Negative Ranks	8[a]	4.50	36.00
	Positive Ranks	0[b]	.00	.00
	Ties	0[c]		
	Total	8		

a. Other Combination < Combination with Speaking

b. Other Combination > Combination with Speaking

c. Other Combination = Combination with Speaking

Table 56 The Mann-Whitney Test

	Education Background	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Listening	With Education	15	13.30	199.50
	With NO Education	8	9.56	76.50
	Total	23		
Speaking	With Education	15	12.00	180.00
	With NO Education	8	12.00	96.00
	Total	23		
Reading	With Education	15	11.00	165.00
	With NO Education	8	13.88	111.00
	Total	23		
Writing	With Education	15	12.43	186.50
	With NO Education	8	11.19	89.50
	Total	23		
Combination with Speaking	With Education	15	9.13	137.00
	With NO Education	8	17.38	139.00
	Total	23		
Other Combination	With Education	15	13.97	209.50
	With NO Education	8	8.31	66.50
	Total	23		

:ond : Experience Background

achers with Most Experience Background

ata

Table 57 Time in minutes by teachers with most experience background

	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Combination with Speaking	Other Combination
1	7	0	0	0	21	12
2	6	0	0	0	27	6
3	1	0	0	0	33	6
4	0	0	0	4	27	10
5	6	0	0	0	19	16

a.

put

Table 58 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Combination with Speaking - Listening	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Combination with Speaking - Speaking	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Combination with Speaking - Reading	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Combination with Speaking - Writing	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Other Combination - Listening	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	4	2.50	10.00
	Ties	1		
	Total	5		
Other Combination - Speaking	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Other Combination - Reading	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Other Combination - Writing	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		

Table 59 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Other Combination - Combination with Speaking	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		

· Teachers with Medium Experience Background

· Data

Table 60 Time in minutes by teachers with medium experience background

	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Combination with Speaking	Other Combination
1	6	0	0	8	23	3
2	3	0	0	4	20	13
3	2	0	0	2	29	8
4	10	0	0	0	25	5
5	3	0	0	1	22	14

a.

2-Output

Table 61 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Combination with Speaking - Listening	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Combination with Speaking - Speaking	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Combination with Speaking - Reading	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Combination with Speaking - Writing	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Other Combination - Listening	Negative Ranks	2	1.50	3.00
	Positive Ranks	3	4.00	12.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Other Combination - Speaking	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Other Combination - Reading	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		
Other Combination - Writing	Negative Ranks	1	1.00	1.00
	Positive Ranks	4	3.50	14.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		

ble 62 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Other Combination - Combination with Speaking	Negative Ranks	5	3.00	15.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	5		

Teachers With Least Experience Background .

Data

Table 63 Time in minutes by teachers with least experience background

	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Combination with Speaking	Other Combination
1	6	0	0	0	22	13
2	3	0	0	5	16	16
3	4	0	0	2	30	4
4	1	0	0	0	34	5
5	0	0	0	2	32	6
6	2	0	0	4	18	16
7	1	0	0	7	25	6
8	3	0	0	0	25	12
9	0	0	0	0	22	18
10	4	0	0	3	22	12
11	10	0	0	3	20	8
12	1	0	2	1	29	8
13	0	0	7	0	28	9

a.

Table 64 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Combination with Speaking - Listening	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Combination with Speaking - Speaking	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Combination with Speaking - Reading	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Combination with Speaking - Writing	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Other Combination - Listening	Negative Ranks	1	2.00	2.00
	Positive Ranks	12	7.42	89.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Other Combination - Speaking	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Other Combination - Reading	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Other Combination - Writing	Negative Ranks	1	1.00	1.00
	Positive Ranks	12	7.50	90.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		

Table 64 I-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Combination with Speaking - Listening	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Combination with Speaking - Speaking	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Combination with Speaking - Reading	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Combination with Speaking - Writing	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Other Combination - Listening	Negative Ranks	1	2.00	2.00
	Positive Ranks	12	7.42	89.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Other Combination - Speaking	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Other Combination - Reading	Negative Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		
Other Combination - Writing	Negative Ranks	1	1.00	1.00
	Positive Ranks	12	7.50	90.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		

Table 65 II-Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Other Combination - Combination with Speaking	Negative Ranks	13	7.00	91.00
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00
	Ties	0		
	Total	13		

Table 66 The Kruskal-Wallis Test

	Experience	N	Mean Rank
Listening	Most	5	13.20
	Meduim	5	15.30
	Least	13	10.27
	Total	23	
Speaking	Most	5	12.00
	Meduim	5	12.00
	Least	13	12.00
	Total	23	
Reading	Most	5	11.00
	Meduim	5	11.00
	Least	13	12.77
	Total	23	
Writing	Most	5	8.10
	Meduim	5	14.80
	Least	13	12.42
	Total	23	
Combination with Speaking	Most	5	12.40
	Meduim	5	11.00
	Least	13	12.23
	Total	23	
Other Combination	Most	5	12.40
	Meduim	5	10.00
	Least	13	12.62
	Total	23	